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Spare the Rod?

ARE THE nation's schools doing a good job teaching pupils to read? Is it true that the answer to this question is often only a matter of opinion because of the great variation in methods, materials, and the lack of agreed standards? Do successful reading and thinking defy analysis because the classroom is a complex social situation and student differences are so great? The answer to the first question is an unqualified *yes*; to the next two, a qualified *no*.

Research can contribute. W. S. Gray has reported on this contribution in detail in his article "Research in Reading Marches On." It may surprise some and amaze others to realize how much has been going on. Both the basic research and the action research point up the reasonable interpretations that may be made about individual learners; about the characteristics of groups; and about teaching procedures.

In discerning the improvements that are possible in the teaching of reading, Gates wisely concludes that a survey of the results of research must be made; and he does just this in his article. He recommends that "the emphasis should be shifted from teaching the child how to learn by being taught—that is, waiting to be told what exercises to do, what books to read, what details to study—to learning how to learn by himself."

Research in the International Reading Association as reported by Agatha Townsend represents an impressive record. Turn to her report

in this issue and be proud of the record and the need for "installment" reporting. Measuring rods are being built, are being tried out, and are being refined. Standards for quality are being established.

This is not the time to be alarmed because our schools are being compared. If they are compared accurately, we can be proud.

This is the time to be patient but not impassive, to be dedicated but not obstinate, to be idealistic but not indecisive, to stand firm but not be mired. Research binds teachers and pupils alike, and those who most believe themselves to be good teachers are least free to be subjective and opinionated. The conditions for teaching so as to differentiate instruction are strict—they are always and everywhere the rule; and to ignore them is to break the rule and therefore to lose the pupil.

After teaching all day we must not feel that testing and measuring and checking are a coarse, silent, ruthless affront to our effectiveness. We must not view the measuring rod as an instrument of chastisement. While it may be true that humility is more apt to be attained by those who seem to be unaware of or deny being humble, we must not similarly assume that we shall obtain soundness in our teaching objectives by denying it. Other research must be done and data must be analyzed so as to provide reliable criteria to enable us to get children to the point where they will read on their own.

—R.G.S.

Research in Reading Marches On

by WILLIAM S. GRAY

● THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

MORE THAN four thousand reports of research in reading have been published in English during the last century. Whereas the number reported yearly was small at first, there has been an average of at least one hundred each year during the last three decades. The findings have provided the scientific bases for modern reforms in the teaching of reading, and they serve as a valuable guide to teachers and school officers in appraising current reading programs and in improving instruction in reading.

Because reports of research are printed in various forms and by many agencies, it is difficult for even the best informed to keep up with the increasing volume of literature in this field. Three types of summaries are now available: (1) the yearly summary of reading investigations published annually in the February issue of the *Journal of Educational Research*; (2) three-year summaries published in the *Review of Educational Research*, the most recent of which was prepared by Dr. Constance McCullough and appeared in Vol. XXXVIII, April, 1958, pp. 96-100; and (3) summaries covering a longer period of time prepared by Dr. Arthur Traxler and his collaborators, the last of which was published in 1955 under the title *Eight More Years of Research in Reading* (Educational Records Bureau, 21

Audubon Street, New York City.)*

An analysis shows that the various studies may be classified into three general types: "basic research," "action research," and summaries of research relating to specific topics. In the discussion that follows an effort is made to provide a brief acquaintance with the purposes of each type, along with a few significant examples of each.

Basic Research

Basic research in reading seeks to secure a clearer understanding of such problems as the nature of the reading act and the various factors and conditions that influence its development. During the second half of the nineteenth century most of the research in reading was of this character. It was concerned largely with two questions: how are words perceived? and what is the character of the eye movements in reading? The findings led to a radically different concept of the reading act than had prevailed previously and paved the way for modern reforms in reading instruction.

A second contribution of early research in reading was the discovery that for most purposes silent reading is much more economical and effi-

*For a further discussion of these references and other sources of research information, see "The Real Frontier in Reading Research, by Theodore Clymer, in this issue of THE READING TEACHER.

cient than oral reading. A clear recognition of this fact led in time to radical changes in emphasis in teaching reading. As pointed out by Dr. Nila B. Smith in *American Reading Instruction*, the major aims in teaching reading about 1900 were to develop the skills of word recognition, to promote habits of expressive oral reading, and to cultivate appreciation of good literature. By 1925 the dominating aims were to cultivate compelling motives for reading, to develop a thoughtful reading attitude and a clear grasp of meaning, to promote efficient habits of reading for different purposes, and to develop keen interest in personal reading.

In efforts to achieve the new aims the need arose for more penetrating understanding of the reading act and of the principles underlying the development of efficient readers. As examples of the nature and scope of the pertinent research carried on between 1915 and 1930 brief reference will be made to the studies of two great leaders and their associates. Through the use of grants from the Commonwealth Fund, Charles H. Judd stimulated intensive research concerning a series of challenging reading problems. The results were published in the Supplementary Educational Monographs by the University of Chicago Press, four of which bore the following titles: *Reading: Its Nature and Development*, by Charles H. Judd; *Fundamental Reading Habits: A Study of Their Development*, by Guy T. Buswell; *Silent Reading: A Study of the*

Various Types, by Charles H. Judd and Guy T. Buswell; and *Remedial Cases in Reading: Their Diagnosis and Treatment*, by William S. Gray.

A second effort to secure a broader understanding of reading problems was made by Edward L. Thorndike and his colleagues. As a result of detailed analyses of the errors of children in reading sentences and paragraphs Thorndike prepared an illuminating description of the way various mental processes function in reading. His findings led to two significant conclusions. The first was that "reading is a very elaborate procedure, involving a weighing of each of many elements in a sentence, their organization in the proper relations one to another, the selection of certain of their connotations and the rejection of others, and the cooperation of many forces to determine final response." The second conclusion was that "reading an explanatory or argumentative paragraph . . . on geography or history or civics, and (though to a less degree) reading a narrative or description, involves the same sort of organization and analytic action of ideas as occur in thinking of supposedly higher sorts." (7)

Building upon the progress of research made prior to 1930, recent investigators have expanded and intensified the search for new truths until they have explored at least in a preliminary way practically all known reading problems that arise from birth to old age. It will not be possible here even to outline the nature and scope of the wide variety

of the problems studied, or the nature of the major contributions of the findings. Instead reference will be made to two recent studies which aimed to secure added insight into the problems faced in promoting growth in understanding and interpreting what is read.

In an effort to identify the characteristics of mature readers, Gray and Rogers (2) developed a scale organized in terms of five basic aspects of reading and eighteen criteria of maturity. The scale was the product of both previous research and new findings secured during the study. Adults of various levels of education, including a selected group who were reputedly well read and very efficient readers, were tested and interviewed to identify their characteristics as readers. The evidence showed that mature readers have so thoroughly mastered the mechanics of word perception that difficulties in this area do not serve as blocks to the understanding and interpretation of what is read.

Of major importance in this discussion are the following characteristics of the mature readers who were studied: capacity to grasp the literal meaning accurately and thoroughly; ability to enrich the grasp of literal meaning through the recognition of implied meanings; capacity to extend and clarify the understanding of literal and implied meanings through the recall of related experiences; ability to use the literal, implied, and related meanings in reaching conclusions or generalizations not stated by the author; an

attitude of inquiry concerning such items as the value, quality, or accuracy of what is read; a tendency to suspend judgment and to use rational standards in reacting thoughtfully to what is read; sensitivity to the fact that the ideas acquired may have personal or social value; and insightfulness, breadth, and penetration in using or applying the important ideas apprehended.

Similar studies have greatly clarified some of the goals to be achieved through instruction in reading. As a further aid in this connection, Pickarz (4) made recordings of interviews with good and poor sixth-grade readers following the silent and oral reading of selected passages. During the course of the reading each pupil verbalized his understanding of the meaning of what he had read and answered thirty questions about it. An analysis of the responses revealed significant differences between higher- and lower-level readers.

The "higher-level reader made a greater variety and number of responses," implying greater penetration into the materials read. His responses were more evenly divided among the three levels of interpretation studied, moving easily and quickly from literal to implied meanings and to evaluative responses. He tended to remain objective and impersonal in his interpretations, to use his background of experience in enriching his grasp of meaning, to limit his own responses to the materials in the text. However, he reacted to the ideas read in terms of personal

experiences and rational standards.

The lower-level reader limited her responses largely to literal meanings, giving only passing attention to implied meanings and critical evaluations. She had difficulty in maintaining an impersonal, objective attitude and in distinguishing between her own and the author's ideas. The reactions to what was read stemmed from an emotional rather than an intellectual base and were highly personal in nature. Some of the words read stimulated the recall of personal experiences which often led her far beyond the limits of the author's intended meanings.

Thus for the last half century basic research in reading has provided a constantly expanding view of the nature of good interpretation, the difficulties encountered, and possible steps in overcoming difficulties and in developing competent readers. Similar progress has been made in the study of practically all aspects of reading. Although tremendous progress has been made through scientific studies of reading, many of those reported have been open to severe criticisms. As research moves forward, investigators must be keenly aware of deficiencies in current research procedures and be diligent in their efforts at correction. As an aid in planning research or in reacting critically to published studies the reader is referred to "A 'Forest' View of Present Research in Reading," by Scott (6).

Action Research

Action research is a term that has

come into wide use recently to refer to studies which are designed to aid teachers, supervisors, and others in the on-going process of improving reading instruction. Such studies are directed by various aims: to identify differences in the reading achievement and needs of pupils; to find out the reading preferences of the members of a group; to study the effectiveness of different methods of teaching among individuals and groups; to determine the extent of the mastery by given pupils of various word-attack skills; the richness and variety of the meanings associated with words, and ability to select meanings appropriate to the context in which given words are used. This list could be extended to include challenging problems relating to practically every aspect of reading instruction at all school levels.

This type of research received great impetus between 1910 and 1920 as a result of the development of standardized tests. Previously, most research studies were carried on in laboratories through the use of specialized instruments and techniques. As rapidly as appropriate tests were available teachers and school officers began to use them widely in the study of the problems faced in classrooms and schools. At first they were used largely by school officers in making comparative studies of the achievement of pupils in different classrooms and schools. As the results were studied it was found that tests could be used by teachers in the study of a wide range of classroom problems. Since 1920 action

research has increased steadily until it has become a vital aid in improving instruction. As the scope of the problems studied has broadened, the techniques used in action research have extended far beyond the use of tests.

An early example of action research is a study by Green (3) to determine the influence of conscious study of the quality of reading materials on pupils' choices of books to read. In the eighth-grade classes included in the study, forty-five minutes were reserved for voluntary reading. At first the discussion of books was quite informal. In time a desire developed to identify books of good quality. To this end book reviews were introduced. Pupils were referred to available lists of recommended books. Groups of pupils were encouraged to study and report upon various kinds of books. As the project went forward the following standards were developed and adopted.

"A book, to be on our lists, must be about something we want to know about. It must be written in words we can understand. If it tries to state facts, they must be accurate. If it tells a story involving what is true to life, the story must not be so overdrawn as to be ridiculous. It must become more interesting as the story proceeds. It must be told in good English."

When books were reported by different groups to the class as a whole they were critically considered in the light of the foregoing standards. If accepted, a book was placed

on the approved list. Very often books were referred back to the original group for additional study. The value of these procedures was measured in terms of the amount of reading and number of choices from the approved lists made by 210 pupils in two schools. In one school the increase in the amount of home reading was 68 per cent. Equally important was the fact that 76 per cent of those materials read for fun were selected from the approved list. In the other school the increase in the amount of home reading was 34 per cent, whereas 71 per cent of the books read were selected from the approved lists. In Green's judgment the experiment was very valuable in that it supported her belief that amount of reading and pupil preferences can be influenced through carefully planned guidance.

As one reviews the foregoing study critically it becomes obvious at once that it does not meet all of the requirements of sound basic research. Nevertheless, it proved valuable to the teacher under the conditions that prevailed in her classrooms. One of the errors often made by those who conduct action research is to assume that the studies have universal validity. Such assumptions are often fallacious, due to differences in pupils, teachers and instructional environments, and to a score of other conditions.

As a guide to teachers in organizing and conducting classroom research which involves comparisons, Dolch (1) has prepared a very readable and helpful article. Among the

conditions which he affirms must be observed, the following are highly important: "compare 'equal teachers' working equally hard"; "compare pupils of equal natural ability and equal home influences"; "compare only equal school time and emphasis"; "watch carefully the size of the classes"; "beware of misleading averages" (the total distribution must be studied); "watch for unmeasured results." The reasons that support each of the foregoing criteria of good action research are brought out clearly in Dr. Dolch's article.

An interesting series of studies involving action research has recently been reported by the Department of Public Instruction, Queensland, Australia (5). The studies were concerned with the comparative efficiency of two methods of teaching beginning reading in the infants' schools. The findings are of special interest in the light of the recent vigorous discussion of the best approach to teaching reading. One of the methods had been in use for twenty years and emphasized phonics from the beginning. Each unit aimed to teach children many different words containing a particular phonic element. As a result there was a high vocabulary load with many uncommon words in each unit.

The contrasting method approached reading through a readiness program and the acquisition of a sight vocabulary of words with which the children were very familiar in daily conversation. From the beginning and throughout the course, major emphasis was given to

the meaning of what was read. However, word attack skills were not neglected. Many methods of attacking new words were used from the beginning and functional phonics received attention during the second term of the first grade.

In 1951 the Queensland Education Department began a comparative study of the method then in use with the newer methods employed in other states and countries. During 1952-54 three different series of readers, which conformed closely with the contrasting method described above, were used experimentally in a few schools. At the close of 1954 the performance of the pupils in the schools using these methods were evaluated by teachers and inspectors and their achievement measured with objective tests. The results indicated that the children so taught made better progress in many respects. It was decided, therefore, to give these methods more extended trial and rigorous test.

During 1955 a partially controlled experiment was carried on in each of twenty-seven schools located in various parts of Queensland to secure more accurate evidence concerning the relative merits of the two procedures. The schools chosen were representative of the schools of the state as a whole. The teachers who taught the experimental classes were selected from among those who volunteered to serve. They were also given a week's training before the opening of the school year to acquaint them with the new methods. During the course of the experiment

each teacher was free to adjust techniques to the situation in harmony with her best judgment. The fact was pointed out that several inequalities existed among the experimental and control groups. Nevertheless, the evidence in favor of the newer methods was so convincing that one of the three experimental series was adopted for use throughout Queensland beginning in 1958. The foregoing statement provides a wholly inadequate view of the problems faced and the procedures adopted in the conduct of the experiment. It does suggest, however, that even large school units are turning to action research as a means of helping to solve some challenging problems.

Summaries of Research Relating to Specific Topics

As the amount of research has increased during recent years it has become increasingly difficult to keep fully informed concerning the results of studies relating to specific problems, such as methods of increasing meaning vocabulary. To overcome this difficulty, summaries have been prepared and published of pertinent research relating to many significant issues. The motive for some of these summaries has been to establish valid guides in critically appraising current practices in teaching reading and in making needed improvements. In other cases investigators have prepared critical summaries as a first step in planning further studies in a given field. In the paragraphs that follow selected summaries are designated by title, author, and source of

publication. The titles marked by an asterisk have been shortened, or changed to suggest content.

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Improvements in Reading Possible in the Near Future

by ARTHUR I. GATES
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RESearch in the teaching of reading suggests many possible improvements. Some are tentative because they depend upon uncertain future changes in family and community life or technical advances in communication media or additional developments in reading research itself, or all of these. They are likely not to be made until sometime in the future. Other improvements are more clearly suggested by earlier research and probably can be more easily made in the near future. It is with some of the improvements of the latter type that this paper will deal.

To discern the improvements in the teaching of reading which are most needed in the immediate future, one must survey the results of research to find the components of instruction which are most essential or potent and then consider whether and how these can be embodied, if at all, in the teaching program of typical schools. Accordingly, let us begin with a brief sketch of the type of teaching most frequently found in typical American schools today.

Reading in Today's Schools

During the two preceding years, the writer, in the process of revising and restandardizing four of his batteries of reading tests, has obtained various facts about the materials and

methods of teaching reading in a large sampling of schools in all parts of the country. The data to be given presently were obtained from a group of school systems, including a small town in California, a rural county in Georgia, a rapidly growing trading center in New Mexico, an agricultural center in Missouri, industrial cities in northern New York, Ohio, and Michigan, residential suburban communities in several states, metropolitan cities such as New York and others. The average intelligence quotients of the elementary school populations of these communities ranged from a mean of 90 to 120, with a median intelligence quotient of 100 for the entire population.

The typical teacher in these schools has been teaching about fifteen years and has spent about 60 per cent of this time in the grade in which he now works. Primary grade teachers change grades less often than teachers in the intermediate grades. The teacher has a class of twenty-seven or twenty-eight pupils—the standard deviations of these means, however, are six to seven pupils, which means that class size varies greatly. The pupils in a given grade today are much younger, except in grade one, than they were two decades or more ago—by one month on entering grade two, by four months in grade four, by nine months or about the

length of the school year, in grades five and six, tapering down to about six months in grades eight and nine. (These are facts which laymen and especially lay critics of education do not seem to take into account.) The marked lowering of the age of pupils in the grades is the result of the changed promotion policy; in the present sampling, the mean percentage of promotion was about 96. Moreover, more of the pupils of very low attainment stay in school now than formerly. In general, then, classes are larger and younger and have a greater range of individual differences today than formerly.

Basal reading systems are almost universally used (about 99 per cent), although with variations in procedure. Many use one series for "basal" work exclusively in grades one and two; others use two series co-basally, and many use more than two, especially in grades four and above. The mean numbers of basal series used are: grade two, 1.5; grade three, 1.7; grade four, 5; and grade six, 2.0. It may, therefore, be said that the use of one or two sets of basal reading books and materials, and a teaching procedure embodying the main features outlined in basal manuals is the prevailing form of reading instruction in today's schools.

Another important trend has been the increase during the last two decades of the number of miscellaneous books in the classroom library. The mean number of books found in the schools recently surveyed was, for grade two, 77; grade three, 85; grades four, five, and six, from 100

to 105. There seems little doubt that children have greater opportunities today than previously to get at library and bookmobile materials.

Difficulties in Teaching Reading

During the past few years, the writer has accumulated teachers' opinions about the greatest difficulties encountered in teaching reading. Following are the most frequent ones.

Lack of time to deal adequately with all the individuals in the class is a persistent problem. The teacher realizes that he should study each child thoroughly in all his characteristics and provide generous amounts of individual guidance almost every day, but he, typically, finds it impossible. There are frankly too many pupils and too many other phases of teaching for him to handle. He is forced to spend most of his time with the whole class, or at best a sizable group, while painfully aware that his teaching is far from sharply adjusted to individual needs. Lack of sufficient study and guidance of the individual is probably the one outstanding deficiency in teaching reading (and in other areas as well) today. The greatest need of the immediate future is improvement in meeting individual needs, either by reducing the size of classes, or providing more teachers or teachers' aides per class, or smarter teachers, or by greatly improved teaching materials and procedures, or all of these.

Teachers frequently say, in effect, "Yes, I have a hundred books in the classroom, but I don't have nearly

enough books, especially small books, which are *high* enough in substance and interest, *wide* enough in variety, and *low* enough in difficulty for my poorer readers, especially the boys. I also should like to have more reading material written especially for my very bright and very expert, but young, readers." Here at least is one need that *can* be met. Many such books can and should be written and published in the near future.

The typical basal series of readers and preparatory books, and practice books or workbooks, can help the teacher make adjustment to individual differences by freeing some of his time otherwise spent in oral teaching, by helping him determine individual attainments and difficulties, and in other ways. Nevertheless, it must be admitted, the basal readers do tempt the teacher to pursue a good deal of mass instruction. They are so beautifully organized, so easily managed, so skillfully arranged sequentially that they make it temptingly easy to put the whole class or large sections of it into action together. They seem subtly to induce some teachers to rest on their oars, to let the books do the job. The typical manual accompanying these books exhorts the teacher to study the individuals and gives extensive suggestions for helping them, but many teachers find it relatively difficult or impractical to do so.

For several decades there have been a number of teachers and students of teaching methods who have felt that the best way to get teachers to attend to individual needs is to

eliminate the "basal text" type of program entirely, and adopt an "individualized program." This will force the teacher to sink or swim in a sea of individually managed reading activities. He has got to teach them himself. If workbooks and other practice materials are used at all, they are employed not as basal, sequential materials, but in a supplementary *ad hoc* manner. It must be admitted that this method does put it up to the teacher really to square off with the problem of getting to understand the individual child; and if he has the vigor, ingenuity, and insight, he is likely to do very well.

In interviews with a large number of teachers who have tried such an individualized program, the writer and his associates found that most of the teachers said it got to be an increasingly tough job as the class roll exceeded fifteen children.

The well-managed individualized program embodies several highly desirable features.

1. Individual conferences, properly conducted, have great motivating and—especially for the sensitive, slow learner—therapeutic values, as has long been known (1).

2. Individual conferences tend to give real insight into a child's abilities, difficulties, and needs, both natural and necessary. It makes the teacher "keep his eyes and ears open" (4).

3. The individualized program tends to reduce what Mr. Frank G. Jennings, one of the writer's associates, has aptly described as the

"patina of requiredness" found in so much of what the school has to offer (3).

An open-minded survey of research and of the experience of teachers who have used basal reading programs and the better types of "individualized reading" procedures will enable one to see that the best teaching will combine the good features of both methods. The best work with basal books embodies individualized teaching, and the best "individualized teaching" includes whole class and subgroup activities and the use of materials taken from, or identical in principle with, basal readers and workbooks. We should nip in the bud the idea, now beginning to emerge, that one must accept one or the other of two antagonistic systems. We must undertake to discern the good features of each and attempt to embody them into what should be a better system than either.

The remainder of this article will consist of a brief discussion of a few general principles which the writer believes should be followed in the effort to evolve an improved program in the immediate future.

Principles for Improving Reading Instruction

A century of research in psychology has shown that reading is a subtle skill like singing, playing the violin or bridge or tennis or golf, and that it takes years of devoted practice *under expert guidance* to achieve high levels of proficiency. The pupil must be motivated sufficiently to enjoy trying hard to learn,

and the teacher must know intimately what skills, insights, and techniques produce the best performances in the long run. An eager learner and a shrewd teacher are more important than any books or materials or program in reading, quite as they are in tennis or playing the violin.

The emphasis should be shifted from teaching the child how to learn by being taught—that is, waiting to be told what exercises to do, what books to read, what details to study—to learning how to learn by himself. This is what a youngster strives to do when he learns to play baseball or tennis or to swim. He tries to figure out how to go about it himself. He strives to understand how the good pitcher or swimmer performs and what he as a learner is doing wrong. There is a strong suggestion in the results of research and in observations of expert teaching in dancing, music, and athletics, and in the theatre and elsewhere, that we have greatly underestimated the school child's capacity for achieving insight into the nature of good and poor techniques. He can learn under his own steam in reading—provided he has a teacher shrewd enough to help him.

The facilities long used by football coaches and tutors of prospective movie actors for cultivating self-insight in their students, and diagnostic insight for themselves, should be employed more extensively. Moving pictures, and now television pictures, of expert performers to demonstrate the various good ways

of tackling unfamiliar words, of skimming a newspaper, etc., could easily, but not inexpensively, be prepared. Tape recorders can be put to a number of illuminating uses in teaching reading. The subtle arts of the master teachers should be made widely available on television, and in sound-motion pictures for other teachers to observe. Television offers opportunities for master teachers to teach pupils and less gifted teachers at the same time.

Parenthetically, English teachers and specialists often appear to regard television and sound-motion pictures as rivals of reading and literature. It would probably really be a help in the development of interest and ability in reading if these mechanical devices could take over a much larger share of the teaching of the content subjects, especially those in which textbook reading material is notably difficult. Reading has been and still is the slave of the school curriculum. If a pupil thinks of hard school work, he thinks of reading a hard book or manual. All day long—the youngsters complain—it is read, read, read hard stuff. Little wonder the child, or college student, or business man, for that matter, is likely to turn to something else as soon as the work day is over. If reading were not labored so long and so hard in school, it would be a lot more fun. Paradoxically, pupils would probably read more if they were *required* to read less.

Suggestions for certain changes in the roles of the teacher and the learner have been made. Now, what

about the authors and publishers of teaching materials? There is much for them to do. They need to produce materials that are designed primarily to foster self-learning. They are already producing a flood of do-it-yourself books and articles in other areas—hunting, fishing, football, bridge, dancing, drawing, skin-diving, cabinet making, hot rod cars, hifi phonographs, and so on and on. Why not do-it-yourself books and booklets for reading? There are possibilities for immediate improvement here, especially for materials designed clearly to meet a wide range of individual differences, and to help the pupils learn by themselves.

We should launch studies of ways in which children can learn better by themselves and teach each other in various arrangements by pairs, trios, and quartettes. The typical school provides work by a whole class or by the individual or subgroups, typically groups of six to ten pupils, but little with the smaller units. As greater skill in self-learning and understanding appear, a greater specialization in grouping should be possible in spite of the now widely held feeling that three or four groups are about all a teacher can contend with. Experimentation with the small groups is almost negligible. It is promising. It is needed. (2)

Definite steps should be taken to make better use of the special abilities of members of the staff of a school system, and to secure additional special services when needed. The administrative provisions for making use of teacher cooperative

groupings, of "master teachers," "reading specialists," psychologists, reading centers, teachers' helpers, and community agencies in such systems as Chicago, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, Hagerstown, Maryland, and elsewhere, point up the possibilities of rich returns for the improvement of classroom instruction. The confusion about what reading specialists should be called, how and what they should study, what services they can and should render, is especially regrettable and should be clarified promptly.

Finally, and perhaps most important of all, is the recognition that the school should now develop reading enthusiasms and skills not only for typical school materials but also, indeed perhaps primarily, for enjoying and learning from the wealth of material available for all ages and at all hours of the day and night outside of school. The mass of material appearing daily in newspapers, tabloids, comics, in hundreds of periodicals, books, booklets, pamphlets, circulars, letters, on the television and movie screens, in radio broadcasts is almost overwhelming. While much of it is poor and some of it downright awful, much of it is interesting, informing, and more up-to-date than most school materials. The teacher of the communication arts should recognize that teaching how to deal efficiently and critically with this flood of material has become a basal part of every school's responsibility. Such learnings cannot be safely left for higher schools or adult education. Nowadays the kids are heavily occu-

pied with these media, before they enter the kindergarten. And what they get will in large measure be determined during the rest of their lives by what they *learn* to like and to handle efficiently.

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1. See Grace Arthur, *Tutoring as Therapy*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1946.
2. For some practical suggestions for arranging work for such groupings see Donald D. Durrell, *Improving Reading Instruction*. New York: World Book Company, 1956. Pp. 125-135.
3. From an unpublished paper, but see Frank G. Jennings' article "That Johnny May Read" in *The Saturday Review of Literature*, February 4, 1956.
4. See May Lazar, Marcella Draper, and Louise Schwieter, *Effective Classroom Practices in Individualized Reading*. Board of Education of the City of New York, Bureau of Educational Research, May, 1958. Also various reports in *Individualizing Reading Practices, Practical Suggestions for Teaching*. Teachers College, Columbia University, Alice Miel, Editor, Number 14, 1958. Pp. 91.

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Research in Thinking Abilities Related to Reading

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ALMOST every school subject claims thinking as its special province or as one of its major objectives. Social studies, science, mathematics, literature, languages, fine arts, and vocational subjects claim improvement in thinking abilities as an outcome. Thinking abilities have been courted by educational methods throughout history: the Socratic method, the Montessori methods, case methods, problem methods, discussion methods, apprenticeships, and even "brain storming" are proposed as ways of inducing thinking. The art of questioning, formerly a staple in normal school training, was intended to improve thinking; remnants of this approach are found in the study guides at the ends of chapters in school textbooks. Since thinking is so widely and consistently approved as an objective of education in all subjects and at all levels of education, it is strange that it does not have a more established research background.

Various types of thinking are essential to later use of reading. Simple comprehension, when no relationships or analyses are made, is likely to result in rapid forgetting. Even the reading of fiction, if not associated with known situations in

the child's life, may be little more than controlled daydreaming. If reading is to be useful in later behavior, some type of mental reaction must accompany or follow reading.

There is no single definition of thinking satisfactory for research or teaching purposes. Thinking seems to embrace many types of mental tasks, and since most definitions are ambiguous or elusive, it appears necessary to give illustrations and examples in order to make clear the type of thinking task being taught or measured. Russell (9) describes the following types of children's thinking: associative thinking and fantasy, concept formation, problem solving, critical thinking, and creative thinking. There is no clear agreement upon the definitions or numbers of types of thinking; a number of writers such as Dewey (3) equate thinking with problem solving, while others follow Symonds (11) in finding many different types of thinking. The fact that there are discrete functions in thinking is shown by low correlations between various measures of thinking. In a recent study Chambers (2) found correlations of .33 to .71 among several measures of thinking abilities, but these were reduced to .14 to .55 when mental ability was held con-

stant, and were further reduced to .03 to .33 when reading achievement was controlled statistically.

The ability to think appears to rest upon training rather than upon intelligence. Glaser (5) demonstrated marked gains in critical thinking among twelfth-grade pupils; Kay (7) showed that critical reading could be improved among pupils in high school; Salisbury (10) produced marked gains in the ability of high school students to organize and subordinate ideas; Jenkins (6) improved the elaborative thinking of sixth graders; and Arnold (1) showed that critical thinking can be taught in the fifth and sixth grades.

Several studies reported low relationships between intelligence and either initial or final scores in the thinking abilities taught; a high score in reading comprehension does not assure achievement in any of the thinking abilities measured thus far. Apparently, thinking abilities rest upon specific instruction, incidental instruction, or fortunate environment, or heredity. The important thing is that all types of thinking thus far taught respond well to specific instruction.

The first essential to research in thinking is definition; the second is measurement. Any person proposing research in children's thinking will do well to read the descriptions of thinking proposed by Russell (9), and follow by examining measures of various forms of thinking, such as those of Wrightstone (13), Rath (8), Gans (4), Tyler (12), and Jenkins (6). Any investigation of

teaching higher mental processes will include a measure which may be adapted to new levels, subjects, or situations. Research in the construction of tests of thinking abilities of various types and in various subjects is to be encouraged.

There are numerous status studies to follow the construction of measures of thinking abilities, especially as they relate to reading and study. We need measures of ability to interpret ideas, to make inferences and applications, to generalize, to organize and subordinate ideas, and to do many forms of critical and creative thinking. When these measures are available, we may discover common and different factors among them and define better approaches to instruction and measurement. Probably we will find that certain types of thinking, such as elaborative or associational thinking, have a high transfer value, that the techniques of stimulating a "flow of ideas" in one subject transfer to other subjects with little effort. Salisbury (10) suggests that a high transfer results from lessons in organizing ideas. Critical thinking, which requires the evaluation of a product or performance against some standard, may be so dependent upon specialized knowledge that there is little transfer.

Further status studies are to be found in the examination of textbooks, workbooks, and study guides. It is sometimes difficult to discover any pattern among the suggested thinking activities for pupils; certainly, there appears to be no developmental sequence among them. If

there is merit to the "art of questioning" as a stimulus to thought, there should be some examination of the types of questions presented in instructional materials. When we know more about thinking processes, the design of study guides for readers and textbooks will improve. The examination and classification of questions and study activities in textbooks should be accompanied by a similar examination of reading comprehension tests. Our measures of the outcomes of reading may be too largely the retention of facts or simple interpretation.

The most profitable research ventures will be those of design and evaluation of materials and methods of teaching thinking. From the miscellany of exercises found in current textbooks we will need to select types of questions and exercises, find possible sequences and levels among them, provide intensive practice, and evaluate outcomes. Probably the most important to the use of reading is elaborative thinking in its various forms: relating the content of reading to previous knowledge, illustrations and applications, opportunities for use, relationships to other fields, and various associations which integrate reading into knowledge or action. It will probably be found that well-designed exercises in elaborative thinking in reading will produce higher permanent retention and greater availability of knowledge to new situations. We may discover that elaborative thinking is better done in discussion groups of various

sizes than in either individual or whole-class activities, that specific planning or applications are better than remote or academic tasks, that intensive sequential instruction is more effective than occasional or incidental instruction.

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The Real Frontier in Reading Research

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THE THREE preceding articles have pointed out trends in research for the past years, have dealt with ways in which instruction may be improved, and have summarized research findings in the area of critical reading. Another major task, the real frontier in reading research, and one that needs constant attention, is *putting research to work in the classroom*. All the research findings in the field of reading instruction have little or no value until they are applied in the day-to-day job of teaching children to read. The task of applying what we know about reading to what we do in teaching reading is the focus of this article.

How Well Do We Apply Research Findings?

Surveys by competent authorities sometimes give discouraging reports of the degree to which school practices conform to research findings. Traxler (6) suggests, however, that the need to improve reading instruction is no greater now than it was formerly. Supporting Traxler's views are the reports of achievement of today's children when compared to the achievement of children of five, ten, or twenty years ago. See, for example, the article by Betts (1). These studies suggest equal or improved achievement for the children in today's schools. In view of this somewhat conflicting evidence, we

must conclude that we may be doing an adequate job in applying research findings to the teaching of reading, but that much remains to be done to improve the situation. The job that we are doing is satisfactory—but it could easily be done much better.

What Prevents Application of Research Findings?

A wide range of causes is probably responsible when practice trails behind what research suggests is good reading instruction. The situation in any one school is likely to be somewhat unique, and to determine the cause or causes in a particular school would undoubtedly require careful study. The following list includes, in the writer's judgment, the major reasons for inadequate application of research findings to classroom instruction: (1) Lack of knowledge of research findings, (2) Lack of knowledge of how to put these findings into practice, (3) Lack of administrative and/or community support for changes in the reading program, and (4) Lack of proper teaching conditions (such as reasonable work load, sufficient supplies and materials, appropriate class size, suitable school plant, etc.), which enable the teacher to do his best work.

If these lacks are the major causes of difficulty, let us examine the first

two—knowledge of research and knowledge of how to put findings into practice—and suggest methods whereby these problems may be overcome. In the space available here, it is obvious that only a few suggestions in these two areas can be made. The problems of administrative and community support and proper teaching conditions can be mentioned only indirectly because of space limitations.

How Can We Gain Knowledge of Research Findings?

Robinson (5) clearly understands the problem of the teacher who goes to the research journals for an answer to his questions about classroom practices. He may find there is nothing available about his particular program, or he may discover so many reports based upon different designs and populations, and with differing conclusions, that he is hopelessly confused. What is the teacher to do? One answer must be, as Robinson points out, a collection and interpretation of research by qualified persons.

Reading research has been collected and interpreted in a variety of ways in the materials that are described below, and each deserves special consideration. These materials are ordered from the most general to the most specific in terms of their utility to the classroom teacher.

Basic readers and their accompanying workbooks and manuals. The authorship of modern basic readers assures the teacher that these teaching tools are constructed with

a sound research foundation. The names of Gray, Gates, Betts, Russell, Bond, and many others appear on countless research articles, as well as on material intended for instructional use. The teacher can be certain that the basic materials authored by such persons apply research findings in a careful, thoughtful manner. Thus, the teacher who is seeking help on an effective research-oriented way of teaching vowel principles, basic study skills, critical reading, or any other reading ability will find general help in any of the modern basic programs.

In certain localities, principals and supervisors are suggesting that teachers abandon all use of basic materials. Until teachers are as skillful in applying research findings as persons who devote their lives to the job, and until they are provided generous allotments of time to write materials, the basic programs are tools that should be available in all classrooms.

Professional books. Today the college instructor faces an embarrassment of riches as he guides his reading methods classes to professional books which are based upon research findings. Every few months, it seems, another valuable book appears. The classroom teacher may turn to these books to find answers to questions on classroom practice which are based on research findings. To be sure, not all these books will agree on all matters; but the agreement is greater than is sometimes supposed. The disagreements are helpful, for they provide the new frontiers in reading on which progress can be made. Today's

professional books provide an excellent means of learning about research findings and how they can be applied in the classroom, for the current books illustrate research principles by descriptions of classroom practices. See, for example, Harris (3), and McKim (4). A study schedule of as little as one hour a week in these professional books will reward any teacher with enriched and more effective teaching.

Useful summaries of research. The Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association of the NEA have cooperated in bringing together the results of research in a form which is readily useful to teachers. A series of pamphlets which cover a wide range of subjects—from spelling instruction to homework assignments—is available for twenty-five cents per pamphlet from the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Professor Gates of Columbia has prepared the readable and practical pamphlet entitled *What Research Says to the Teacher: Teaching Reading*. The contents of this pamphlet are succinct and unequivocal in their application to the teaching of reading. A copy of this pamphlet should be on every teacher's desk.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research. This volume, organized and written through the auspices of the American Educational Research Association and published by the Macmillan Company, provides an expert evaluation of the research in countless areas of education. The

current edition (1950) carries a thorough and concise summary of reading research by W. S. Gray. This material warrants the thoughtful attention of anyone who seriously wants to understand the research background of reading instruction. A revised edition of the *Encyclopedia* will be available in 1960.

Traxler's summaries of research. Arthur Traxler's three summaries (7, 8, 9) provide an overview of reading research beginning in 1930 and covering nearly twenty-five years. These carefully prepared bulletins, published by the Educational Records Bureau, provide annotated bibliographies grouped according to topic. These bulletins merit careful attention by all students of reading instruction.

AERA's Review of Educational Research. Every three years the American Educational Research Association devotes an issue of the *Review of Educational Research* to language arts and fine arts. These reviews—necessarily selective because of the broad areas covered—give a good overview of some of the major studies published during the period covered by that issue.

Gray's yearly summaries. In 1925 W. S. Gray published his *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*, which compiled and reviewed the research in reading up to that date. Since then, each spring Gray has published a yearly summary of reading research. These summaries, which now appear in *The Journal of Educational Research*, should be consulted for recent developments

in reading research or for trends in reading over the past thirty years.

Professional journals. Sometimes the reading of research articles in professional journals is a frustrating experience because of the complex statistical vocabulary and symbols used. With a careful examination, however, the adequacy of the design and the major findings can be evaluated and perhaps applied to a particular classroom problem. Dolch's article (2) will be a major help to the classroom teacher in evaluating research studies.

Three journals frequently reporting reading research are *The Elementary School Journal*, *The Journal of Educational Research*, and *Elementary English*. Reports in these journals are generally not statistically complex and usually carry a clear interpretation of what the results mean for the classroom.

From the various sources discussed above the teacher may obtain information about research findings as they apply to the teaching of reading. Having obtained this information, the teacher faces a second and infinitely more difficult task—putting the findings to work in the classroom.

Careful Planning

The teacher's first job in applying research in the classroom is to consider carefully the application of research to his particular teaching area or age group. There can be no substitute for a careful, thoughtful interpretation of how the research will find applications in the teacher's particular situation. Generally, after

studying the research, writing an outlined statement of how the research is to be applied will be a helpful exercise in clarifying thinking and in formulating plans for carrying out the change in instruction in the classroom.

Perhaps this careful consideration may include talking over your plans with a friend who is a teacher, and who may be able to add additional insight. A friendly "give-and-take" discussion over coffee will usually provide ideas available in no other way. Usually the principal or the supervisor should be consulted, for they can provide wise counsel, offer suggestions of procedures and materials, or possibly point out areas in which problems are likely to arise. Some changes in instruction require a schoolwide planning program, and in these cases it is, of course, particularly important that the principal and the supervisor be consulted. In many situations where the changes are relatively major, the parents should be consulted so they have an understanding of the program, for in most communities parental opposition comes from a lack of understanding of the "whys" of a modern reading program. If procedures such as these are carried out, the teacher will have a much clearer idea of how the research findings may be applied in his particular situation.

Setting Up Classroom Procedure

The second step to be carried out in applying research findings in the classroom is to work out very carefully the classroom procedures which

will be necessary to implement the research findings. This point cannot be overstressed. The need for a carefully planned and detailed program of what will happen step-by-step is essential to a successful program. This is not to suggest that the teacher would not welcome changes, or that unexpected events would not be utilized in the classroom to promote a vitalized learning program. But it is equally true that disappointment and chaos will come from a program in which the class procedures are worked out in an accidental and happenstance manner. The detailed plan of operation is particularly important when only part of the class will be involved in any one activity. This means that a careful program must be worked out for those children who are not immediately under the teacher's direction. At the beginning stages, it may be necessary to work out every step in an extremely detailed manner. Later, as the teacher's skill increases and as the students gain more maturity, it may be possible for the teacher to turn more of the planning over to the pupils to allow them greater freedom in the selection of the way and the manner in which they carry out the assignment.

Need for Modest Beginning

The third point to be kept in mind in applying the research findings to the classroom is that generally a modest beginning is best. The major mistake of most teachers in attempting to change their teaching to conform to research findings is to make

too sweeping changes. A modest beginning will be helpful to the teacher because he is feeling his way in carrying out instruction in a new or somewhat different manner. A modest beginning will allow him to test out his ideas, to more or less feel his way along as he gains in understanding of the procedures and as he gauges the children's ability to respond to the kind of instruction he hopes to give. A modest beginning is also helpful for the children because they, too, will be learning as this new program is put into effect. Making a slow, cautious approach in this manner may require more time to reach the goal of changing instruction, but the goal is more likely to be reached than in a case where the teacher immediately makes major changes, and then both the teacher and the children struggle to find their way in the new routine. The need for a modest beginning is perhaps illustrated most often in those cases where teachers are attempting to use multiple, flexible groups for the first time. Beginning teachers, for example, often start their grouping in an ambitious way for even an experienced teacher. Too sweeping a program results in chaos with neither the children nor the teacher prepared to handle it.

Need for Careful Evaluation

After the program is being carried out successfully in the classroom as the teacher would like it, one major step remains. This step is the careful evaluation of the results of the new teaching. Unfortunately, in a few

school systems sweeping changes are made in the instructional program without the provision for checking the results of such changes. This means that no definite conclusions can be made about the changes in the children as a result of this instruction. The author recently visited an area where sweeping changes are being made in the manner in which children are being grouped for reading instruction. (Incidentally, the technique of grouping being used is not one supported by the research—at least as the writer would interpret it.) No systematic provision is being made for an evaluation of the results of the new technique of grouping. At the conclusion of their instructional period, using the new techniques of adjusting for individual differences, there will be no way to determine in these schools whether the new technique results in greater learning or whether the old technique provided the better means for promoting reading growth.

The suggestion is not being made that the teachers be called upon to carry out their own experimentation and design of research experiments. What is suggested is that when changes are made, an attempt should be made to evaluate, either formally or informally, the results of the new procedures. In the case of a school-wide change, the principal, supervisors—or, in the larger systems, research directors—should aid in the designing of studies that will permit an adequate evaluation of the effectiveness of the new procedures.

When a teacher is carrying out

procedures on his own, an informal evaluation may be made using standardized test scores, counts of books read, subjective measures of attitude changes, or any other measures which seem appropriate to the objectives of the experimental program.

This article has pointed out some of the major sources of research information which are valuable and useful to the classroom teacher, as well as some suggestions for putting into practice the changes indicated by research. Much of our reading research has yet to be interpreted and applied to the task of classroom instruction. For the classroom remains as the true frontier in reading research.

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What's Happening in Reading in Sweden? — II*

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IN SPITE of the manifest administrative and educational interest in problems connected with reading and reading disabilities which in recent years has been in evidence in Sweden, very few comprehensive scientific investigations in this field have so far been completed and published in our country.

One of the reasons is, no doubt, the great lack of suitable objective measuring instruments in different spheres. Above all, there has been a need for all kinds of reading tests. Now that this need has been partly met by the standardization of reading tests for some school levels in recent years, we may confidently expect an increase in research in problems connected with reading, reading disabilities, and reading methods. Sweden, however, is still in great need of many more carefully constructed and standardized reading tests for all school levels.

Medical vs. Psychological

Research in the field of reading disabilities has, as in many other countries, been mainly carried out along two different lines, the medical and the educational-psychological. Ever since the pioneering work in this field by Morgan, Kerr, Hinshelwood, etc., at the turn of the century,

medical research has, as a rule, upheld the theory that cerebral injuries of one kind or another are the main cause of reading disabilities. The medical line of approach generally does not deny that many factors other than a cerebral defect—e.g., environmental conditions—may influence reading and writing processes, but these factors are regarded as “non-specific,” and the types of reading disabilities they may be assumed to cause are termed “secondary.”

In medical literature the main interest has been directed toward what is considered to be the specific factor, viz., congenital defect or disease of the cerebral cortex, to describe which the term “congenital word blindness” is most frequently used. The medical point of view concerning reading disabilities has been the leading one in Sweden for a very long time. Up to the beginning of the 1950's, the medical concept “word blindness” was dominant and fully accepted by official school authorities despite resistance from teachers and psychologists. A representative work of medical research in this field is Bertil Hallgren's dissertation, “Specific Dyslexia” (1).

Only recently has a psychological point of view concerning reading disabilities been stressed in official papers from the Royal State Board of Education.

*This is the second (and concluding) part of an article that began in the issue of October, 1958.

Swedish teachers and psychologists do not, as a rule, deny that there may be a few cases of reading disabilities in which the main cause is "congenital word blindness," but we consider that this hypothesis has not been verified satisfactorily. On the contrary, we are of the opinion that the main causes of an underdevelopment in reading ability, in the great majority of cases, should be looked for in another direction. On the basis of the author's own experimental studies of Swedish children in the first grade (2) it has been concluded that a large number of factors may be associated with reading disabilities.

As against the medical view that reading disabilities are a well defined pathological phenomenon, an abnormality, a disease, we hold that reading disabilities should be regarded only as phenomena which fall within the framework of normal variation.

Such terms as "children with reading disabilities" and "poor readers," which are generally employed in research in educational psychology, and which are accepted also by the author in his own experimental studies, may rightly be criticized as too vague and indefinite. We believe that it would be of great value if agreement could be reached as to the scope of such terms.

For our part we consider that the expressions "children with reading disabilities," "poor readers," etc., are appropriate and justified only under the following conditions: (1) We limit ourselves to stating about

pupils whom we assign to such a group of readers that their reading ability is conspicuously below the minimum standards required for their age and class. (2) Reading ability is measured by standardized reading tests; the delimitation of the "poorest readers" can then be made at that part of the distribution curve which is most suitable for the purposes of teaching and school administration. (3) The way in which this delimitation is carried out is stated when making a report, and the measuring instrument is given.

For example, we consider that a child at a normal age for the first grade of the primary school has reading disabilities of such a nature that special teaching of some kind is required, if the results he has obtained in reading fall below minus one sigma on the distribution curve for a given standardized reading test for this grade.

The use of such terms as "children with special reading disabilities" we find appropriate if: (1) The child has poor reading ability (e.g., below minus one sigma for an approved standardized reading test for the grade in question), but his intelligence is normal or above normal when measured by a conventional test such as Terman-Merrill. (2) The pupil's reading ability, measured by an approved standardized reading test for the age in question, deviates significantly (e.g., a discrepancy of more than one sigma on the common scale for the two measuring instruments) in a negative direction from general intelligence as measured by

a conventional test such as the Terman-Merrill.

Summary

We may summarize as follows some of the most important and, for Sweden, unique contributions to our knowledge of reading disabilities, and the techniques applied in the author's above mentioned studies which may be considered useful in this field of research.

1. Our studies were based on a normal population of children, and on different groups of readers selected from this population in accordance with results of reading tests. The usual procedure in previous research was to select groups to be studied from reading clinics, remedial reading classes, child guidance clinics for children with educational difficulties, or general personality maladjustments, etc.

2. In addition to the more conventional methods of investigation — comparisons between different groups of readers with regard to one variable at a time, and studies where each factor is considered separately in relation to reading ability — we studied several variables not only in isolation but also in interaction with other variables. We thus obtained a sounder basis for generalizing about the influence of the variable under consideration. The analysis of variance technique seems to us to be very useful for research in this field.

3. The construction and standardization of reading tests on a representative national sample of children, and the application of

operational methods for differentiating various groups of readers, made it possible to obtain an unequivocal and clear determination of the frequency of reading disabilities in the first grade of Swedish elementary schools.

4. Our investigations were rather extensive. A relatively large number of factors were studied in the same population and at the same test session. We attempted to take into account the child's pre-school development, his birth, health, speech development, home background, social and economic status, educational level of his parents and other home conditions. Moreover, the respective teachers evaluated a number of personality factors for each pupil. Vision, hearing, reading ability, visual perception, spelling ability, intelligence, etc., were tested. Some teacher and school variables were also studied. This comprehensive investigation gave certain advantages. The exploratory and summary character of our studies may be considered to afford good starting points and ample suggestions for further research in this field.

5. In our studies, out of more than forty variables investigated the following factors were found to be most intimately related to reading disabilities in the first grade, and also most clearly differentiated poor readers from good readers: (a) Intelligence, ability to concentrate, persistence, self-confidence and emotional stability or nervousness in the child. (b) Spelling ability according to some spelling tests, and visual

perception as measured by five visual perception tests. (c) Social status and educational level of the parents, and reading interests in the home. (d) Experience of the child's teacher, as measured by number of years of service.

6. By using the case-analysis approach we have shown that children with "special reading disabilities" (IQ above ninety according to the Terman-Merrill) deviated negatively, in a very marked manner, from the mean for the total population investigated, with regard to several other variables besides reading ability. Judging by our results, reading disabilities at first-grade level are never isolated defects. In all the cases investigated they were found to exist together with deficiencies, disturbances, or unfavorable conditions in several other areas.

7. Contrary to the findings of many former investigators, our analysis of oral reading errors shows very clearly that in our sample there were no types of errors especially characteristic of poor readers. All the recorded types of errors in oral reading also occur among good readers, but with less frequency. The same applies to the different types of spelling errors, except that errors such as omission of vowels in the spelling tests were found to occur very rarely among good readers.

Further Studies Needed

Here we shall only indicate some of the areas where important problems remain to be solved.

1. The design of our studies in

Sweden has not made it possible to furnish any definite information regarding the *causes* of reading disabilities at the elementary school level. We have, however, been able to show significant relations between certain factors and reading disabilities, and it seems that the case analysis approach may make a valuable contribution to an understanding of the causes of reading failures.

2. It would be desirable to carry out an intensive longitudinal study of the development of reading ability during the first school years.

3. Our results show that the frequency of cases of reading disability varies very considerably in different classes at the same level. A special further study is therefore needed to determine the extent to which the teacher's personality influences learning to read. It is also reasonable to assume that inadequate methods of teaching may directly cause reading disabilities in certain children.

4. A study is required which will clarify the relationship between the reading material used in teaching and the occurrence of reading disabilities.

5. It would be of great interest to inquire into a possible relationship between the number of children in a class and the frequency of reading disabilities.

6. The part played by heredity in this complex of problems requires renewed intensive treatment.

7. Thorough case studies are both desirable and necessary for gaining more knowledge about different

kinds of personality and emotional patterns which may be assumed to have a causal relationship with reading disabilities.

8. When is it most suitable to begin to teach reading to pupils whose degree of maturity varies in different respects, in order to *prevent* reading disabilities? Such a study should be made with the aid of a whole team of experts in psychology, education, sociology, and medicine.

A number of research workers in Sweden are engaged in studies of these and other closely related problems in reading and reading disabilities, apart from the author of this article—Torsten Husen, Jon Naeslund, and Ake Edfeldt at the Uni-

versity of Stockholm, among others. Some research in the field of reading is going on at the recently started State School for Educational Research in Linköping, which is the only school in Sweden for experimental education of this kind.

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The Secondary School Reading Specialist*

by H. ALAN ROBINSON
● HOFSTRA COLLEGE

THIS ARTICLE is based upon the questionnaire responses of 401 secondary school reading specialists in the five largest cities of 41 states and the District of Columbia. Twenty-one per cent, or 83, of the respondents were male; 79 per cent, or 318, were female. Males ranged in age from 24 to 56 with a median age of 33; females ranged from 22 to 65 with a median age of 45.

Although the term "reading specialist" will be used in this article, "remedial reading teacher" and "reading teacher" appear to be the most frequently used titles for those who specialize in reading instruction in the secondary school. Reading consultant, reading specialist, director of reading, reading supervisor, reading coordinator, and a variety of other titles are used much less frequently. The secondary school reading specialist works with grade levels seven through twelve, although the greatest concentration of effort seems to be with grades seven through nine.

Most reading specialists are affiliated with an English or language arts department, although a rather large number are members of a separate reading department. Many report affiliation with guidance or

pupil personnel services, psychological services, supervision, administration, or no department at all.

Nature of the Work

Reading specialists in the secondary school prove to be diagnosticians, teachers, and consultants. As *diagnosticians* they administer standardized reading tests, informal reading inventories, and spelling tests. They often administer group and/or individual intelligence tests. Projective techniques are used by many. A number employ an individual visual survey test to screen visual difficulties. Some use an audiometer to check hearing. A very small number use the ophthalmograph to diagnose the pattern made by the eyes during a reading situation. At times reading specialists hold individual interviews with pupils, participate in community testing programs, help score, analyze, and interpret standardized tests, and refer pupils to other agencies for assistance.

As *teachers* they teach reading to individuals, small groups, and normal-size classes. Many use instruments as aids in the teaching of reading. About 50 per cent teach English or other subjects in addition to the actual work in reading. A number conduct in-service courses. A small minority also teach corrective spelling, mathematics, and penmanship, give speech therapy,

*Based upon an unpublished doctoral study by H. A. Robinson, "An Occupational Survey of Reading Specialists in Junior and Senior High Schools." New York University, 1957. Pp. 143.

conduct sight-saving classes, give therapy to disturbed pupils, and "cover" classes for other teachers.

As *consultants* the specialists hold conferences with parents and staff members. They help teachers select reading materials, and they conduct demonstration lessons. Regardless of title or departmental affiliation, most secondary school reading specialists serve as consultants to teachers in one way or another.

Reading specialists may also be responsible for numerous other activities. Many speak to community groups, supervise the teaching of reading, and undertake research projects. A number develop or revise reading curricula, keep records and make progress reports, prepare budgets, select and schedule pupils for reading classes, attend and participate in professional conferences, maintain special reading libraries, and write or revise reading materials. A small number are involved in guidance work, use readability formulas, write professional articles, read and review juvenile literature, and maintain reading instruments or repair books. Some supervise or assist in the school library, have charge of school discipline, take charge of school publicity, prepare school bulletin boards, take charge of the school budget, supervise attendance, act as school treasurer or accountant, have the duties of a ranking teacher, supervise new and/or student teachers, schedule the total school program annually, and direct a program for the gifted.

Reading specialists are sometimes

also responsible for many extra duties assigned to, or accepted by, secondary school teachers. Such duties include: club and sport sponsorship, homeroom activities, departmental tasks, faculty committee work, study hall supervision, hall patrol duty, playground supervision, safety patrol supervision, leadership role in the PTA, evening assignments, lunchroom supervision, assistance with clerical work in the office. One female reading specialist in the study even reports that she is the school gardener!

Preparation

Over four-fifths of the specialists hold bachelor's degrees; over three-fifths have master's. About 8 per cent have professional certificates in reading, but less than 1 per cent hold doctorates.

Most reading specialists have taken a great deal of course work in psychology and English. Many have taken lecture courses in reading, but only about two out of five have taken six or more semester hours in supervised practice of the teaching of reading, or had reading laboratory experience. Almost 50 per cent have taken six or more hours in guidance and supervision or administration. Well over 50 per cent would have liked to have had more intensive work in reading instruction itself during their training periods.

Most secondary school reading specialists report having been regular classroom teachers for three or more years before specializing in reading. However, 18 per cent of the men

and 8 per cent of the women had only one to two years of classroom teaching experience before specializing. Sixteen per cent of the men and 4 per cent of the women had *no* classroom teaching experience before specializing.

Entrance

Almost 50 per cent of the reading specialists in the study were asked to accept their jobs without immediate pay raises while they were employed as classroom teachers. A few received immediate pay raises. About a third obtained their jobs through direct application. In a few instances jobs were found through the services of college placement offices or private employment agencies. Infrequently jobs were gained through the passing of Civil Service examinations, referral by professional acquaintances, or actual soliciting by a school administrator. Occasionally the specialist developed the program until it became recognized by the administration; at times, teachers were sent by the school system to study for the job.

Earnings and Satisfaction

The over-all median annual salary is \$5,250. Salaries range from \$1,692 to \$9,000 per year. One-fourth of the specialists earn \$4,000 or less annually; another fourth earn \$6,100 or more per year. Most of the secondary school reading specialists do not receive larger salaries than classroom teachers with comparable years of experience.

Almost 99 per cent of the special-

ists are satisfied with their jobs. In fact, 77 per cent say they are either enthusiastic about their jobs or love them.

The chief satisfactions seem to be related to the nature of the work itself: observation of pupil progress; helping pupils in their total adjustment through corrective reading; a feeling of accomplishment; the ability to stimulate the enjoyment of reading. Most specialists seem to gain the greatest part of their personal satisfaction from the pupils directly. A few indicate pleasure in working with their professional colleagues, in the challenging and stimulating work, and in having the opportunity to serve the *total* school and community.

The chief dissatisfactions appear to stem from the structure and acceptance of the program within the school or school system: not enough time scheduled for corrective reading; negative attitudes of some teachers; large size of corrective reading classes; lack of understanding by the administration; inadequate materials and equipment. A few indicate displeasure with student and parental attitudes, training for the job, and inadequate salary.

Conclusions and Recommendations

1. There is a trend for the secondary school reading specialist to broaden his work beyond the confines of the English Department. Here is a trend which should be encouraged by administrators who take the lead in structuring the posi-

tion in their respective schools, and by the reading specialists who accept such positions. In many traditional secondary schools it is customary to cling to departmental boundaries. Teachers in other departments may not feel free to call upon the services of the reading specialist who is affiliated with one particular subject-matter oriented department. Membership in a Reading Department, no department, or Pupil Personnel Services Department appears to make the reading specialist available to all.

2. Different titles do not always indicate different duties. There is no significant relationship between the titles and duties of the 401 specialists in the study. Reading teachers, remedial reading teachers, reading consultants, et cetera, seem to perform similar duties.

3. There is a need for more intensive training in the area of specialization. Ninety-eight per cent of the specialists in the study who commented on their training suggest that they should have had more intensive work in the teaching of reading. Administrators need to cease the "promotion" or "demotion" of classroom teachers with little or no experience or training as reading specialists. These teachers should be required to obtain training *before* undertaking the job, or trained specialists should be hired.

4. The degree of job satisfaction seems to increase as duties become less like those of the classroom teacher. The extremely satisfied reading specialists in the study, to a signifi-

cantly greater extent than the mildly satisfied, appear to be involved in activities of a more specialized nature. Significantly larger proportions of the mildly satisfied are concerned with classroom work: teaching reading to normal-size classes; teaching English classes; teaching other subjects.

5. Most satisfactions of secondary school reading specialists appear related to the nature of the work, while most dissatisfactions seem to stem from the structure and acceptance of the reading program within the school or school system.

«In order to care for many of the dissatisfactions, *job definition is essential*. State certifications and requirements for membership in professional reading organizations may provide partial solutions of a universal nature. Immediate steps, however, can be taken by school staffs. Administrators, teachers, and the reading specialists must survey the particular needs of individual schools or school systems. Attention must be given to the total concept of reading improvement; reading instruction cannot be improved by "remedial" classes alone. The administration and staff will need to accept the fact that the reading specialist differs from the classroom teacher. The reasons for a less-structured program and the variety of activities must be understood by all. Most important of all is the role of the administrator who should give active support to the program and take the lead in faculty and community education.

The Special Reading Services of the New York City Board of Education

by STELLA M. COHN
● ADMINISTRATOR

PART I — AN OVERVIEW OF THE PROGRAM*

ONE OF the recommendations that grew out of a study of juvenile delinquency authorized by the Mayor of New York City in 1955 was the establishment of a reading clinic to serve the emotionally disturbed retarded reader. Accordingly, in October, 1955, the first reading clinic in the history of the New York City public schools, known as Special Reading Services, was launched by the Elementary School Division with the cooperation of the Bureau of Child Guidance. The first center was established in Manhattan. A second center was opened in Brooklyn in December, 1956. At the time of this writing the Board of Education's new budget has made provision for three new reading clinics with twenty-two additional staff members. Special Reading Services is unique in Board of Education history in that it provides for the complete integration of the work of a clinical and an instructional staff under one administrator.

The Program As It Functions

The program consists of two major aspects, an instructional service and a clinical service. Both of these services include teacher training in that

teachers are trained in instructional methods and in assistance in clinical services. In addition, there are auxiliary services, pediatric examinations and follow-up, ophthalmological examinations and follow-up, and speech diagnosis and treatment.

Reading rooms are set up in each of the two borough centers and in each school that is serviced by the Reading Clinic. These reading rooms are designed as attractive reading centers for the children, but they also provide suggested techniques, devices, and materials for the teachers of the school.

The staffs of the clinics consist of reading counselors who are specially selected experienced teachers (four in the Manhattan Center, three in the Brooklyn Center), a full-time psychologist, a full-time psychiatric social worker, a part-time psychiatrist, and a clerk in each of the centers. The administrator is in overall charge of the clinics.

Six schools have been provided with this intensive service in Manhattan, and six in Brooklyn. About four hundred and fifty children have been given some service. Two hundred and forty are presently in the program. About seventy classroom teachers are participating directly in the program, and more than this number have participated indirectly

*Part II (describing the work of the clinical team and summarizing the clinical findings) will be published in an early issue of THE READING TEACHER.

through grade or faculty conferences and teacher visits to the Reading Clinic.

Criteria for the selection of children for this service are: average or better than average intelligence, reading retardation of at least one and one-half years if the child is in fourth grade and correspondingly greater or less retardation if the child is in a higher or lower grade than fourth, the child's need for help in personal-social adjustment, and parental consent.

Every child accepted for the Special Reading Services must have a signed statement by the parent or guardian affirming willingness to cooperate with the total Special Reading Services Program. This includes consent for a psychiatric examination where needed.

Children are referred to the Special Reading Services by the principal of each participating school. Usually the children are fourth graders, though some have been referred from third and fifth grades. The initial screening is done by the reading counselors who study the cumulative record cards, confer with present and past teachers and then administer a standardized reading test.* If in the reading counselor's judgment the child meets the criteria, the case is referred to the clinic team for further evaluation. The psychiatric social worker interviews the mother. At this time the parent

also signs the consent slip. The psychologist makes an initial study of the child. If the clinic team also agrees that the child meets the criteria, the child is accepted. If the child's intelligence is below average, or the parent cannot or will not plan to cooperate, the child is not accepted.

The following tabulation shows the grade location of the 240 children now in the two centers.

	<u>Grade 3</u>		<u>Grade 4</u>		<u>Grade 5</u>	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Manhattan Center	3	1	57	31	38	14
Brooklyn Center	1	0	49	38	1	0
	4	1	106	69	39	14

	<u>Grade 6</u>		<u>Total Number</u>		<u>Total</u>
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Manhattan Center	6	1	104	47	151
Brooklyn Center	0	0	51	38	89
	6	1	155	85	240

All but a very few of the children accepted have IQ's of 90 or higher; the exceptions are those for whom scores are considered minimal. The psychologists give individual examinations when group test results are questioned. In both centers some children with superior intelligence are included, the highest obtained IQ being 138. The median IQ for the Manhattan group was 104.3 and for the Brooklyn group, 103.5.

The following is a tabulation of the reading retardation in years for the children in the two centers at the time of their admission to Special Reading Services.

*Various tests have been used. The present policy is to use the appropriate one or more of the New York Tests of Growth in Reading, Tests A, B, or C.

Reading Retardation in Years	Manhattan Center	Brooklyn Center	Total
3.6 - 4.0	1	1	2
3.1 - 3.5	4	0	4
2.6 - 3.0	12	3	15
2.1 - 2.5	35	23	58
1.6 - 2.0	56	43	99
1.1 - 1.5	43	19	62
Total	151	89	240
Median Retardation, 1.9 years			

Joint Planning by Instructional and Clinical Staff Members

As soon as a child is admitted to the Special Reading Services, the reading counselor to whom he is assigned, the psychiatric social worker, and the psychologist confer. Here a first evaluation of the child's reading problems is made. The Special Reading Services is essentially a team approach, both clinical and educational, in understanding and meeting the needs of the children in the program. This is evident not only when the interpretations of the findings of the psychologist, psychiatric social worker, and psychiatrist are presented to the reading counselors, but also when these counselors, in turn, relate back to the clinic team observations and problems of the children as they occur during the reading sessions.

There is a continuous exchange and pooling between clinical staff and educational staff. The availability of the psychologist, psychiatric social worker, and psychiatrist enables the reading counselors to meet with a minimum of delay and a maximum of understanding the ex-

treme situations that arise in the case of the very disturbed child.

Generally, the reading counselor, and occasionally the full team, confer with the classroom teacher so that the emotional needs as well as the instructional needs of the child may be met in his regular classroom activities. Since diagnosis is conceived as an on-going process, the program is oriented not only to the initial evaluation of the child, but toward the developing picture which comes with continuing work by the full staff.

The Instructional Program

The instructional program as described applies to both the Brooklyn and Manhattan branches of the Special Reading Services.

The reading diagnosis. In order to get a complete picture of the child's functional level, the results of the achievement tests are studied and evaluated. The types and frequency of errors and the accuracy ratings are noted, as well as the reading counselor's observations of the child's responses to the test situation. An open textbook test is administered to each pupil and the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, a diagnostic test, is given to many of the children, as needed.

Consultation with school personnel. Cumulative record cards, health cards, anecdotal records, guidance records, and other available information are studied to learn the school's view of the personal-social background of each child. Conferences are held with the classroom teachers of the children when newly admit-

ted, and at periodic intervals later. Each classroom teacher is asked to fill out a form describing the personal-social adjustment of the child at the time the Special Reading Services begins work with the child.

Grouping. On the basis of the above data children are placed in groups. Informal orientation sessions are held at first. Further study involves talking with the children, observing their reactions in the group situation, noting their preferences in reading activities, and discovering their individual aptitudes and interests. No set procedures are adhered to, except that usually children of the same grade are grouped together. Sometimes it is found desirable to assign children from the same classroom to different groups. The groups remain flexible and re-grouping goes on as old needs are met and new needs arise.

Scheduling. In organizing the schedule of instruction for the children many factors are taken into consideration. Provisions have to be made for the plans of the classroom teachers, for fixed schedules arranged by the school, and for the educational needs of the child with respect to the over-all class program. The emotional needs of the children are of paramount concern to the reading counselor. The aim is to achieve full and eager participation and maximum interest on the part of the pupils. With this goal in mind it is considered unwise to deprive a child of physical training, of arts and crafts, of class trips, or any similar programs. However, even with care-

ful planning and scheduling it is not always possible to achieve this goal. It has been gratifying to note that where the exigencies of the situation necessitated a choice, most of the children indicated a preference for the reading session.

Methods and Materials of Instruction

The reading program is largely developmental. The origin of the developmental lessons is in the experiences of the children. Varieties of experience charts are used. Many of the phonics and reading skills are taught through these charts as the occasion arises. Teacher-prepared rexographed materials are used either in the introduction, planning, or culmination of an experience. The children enjoy many activities such as cooking, clay modeling, dramatization, crayon and pastel drawing, listening to music, and dancing. Each of these activities provides rich reading experience.

Magazines are a constant source of pictures, lettering, articles, and "ideas." There are many library and supplementary books on different levels of reading ability. The children use these freely. There is a constant exchange of books. Occasionally, trips to the public libraries are arranged. Children are encouraged to borrow books from the public libraries as well as from the Special Reading Services library.

Books are brought to life by the creation of figures personifying characters of stories. Cooking took on new glamour and motivated a run

on cookbooks when French toast, instant pudding, chocolate Easter eggs, etc., were made in the reading room.

Clay is utilized in the reading program not only because of its therapeutic value in relieving tensions, but also because it stimulates the children to explore books on the ways to use clay. One of the near-by schools has generously permitted the Special Reading Services the use of its kiln, and the children are delighted with their finished products.

Through the use of puppets reading has been revitalized for some children who had previously remained comparatively unresponsive. Interest in creating an Easter puppet show led to a search for books on puppetry in the library. The children found out how to make puppets and built a stage selected from several plans in the book. They wrote their own script, which was read by the children as they performed.

A variety of teacher-made materials is used. Reading games, phonic devices, and illustrated charts are developed to meet the specific reading needs indicated by the children.

One of the major objectives of the instructional program is to meet the child's emotional needs. Varied methods are employed to afford ego satisfaction so definitely required by these children. For example, calendars and charts noting birthdates are used and conspicuously displayed. Birthdays are celebrated by the group. Though the reading counselor's work with the children is mainly through the small-group ap-

proach, some children at first are not ready to work in groups and must be seen for a time on an individual basis. Usually, however, the reading counselor each week meets the children in groups of five or six for two sessions of one hour each.

Record keeping. On file for each child are two folders. One is the confidential case record, used only by the clinic team. The other is the reading counselor's folder. The latter contains a copy of the cumulative record card, health, and test cards; all are regularly brought up to date. Initial diagnosis of reading is recorded, as are all subsequent measurements. Statements as to the child's personal-social status secured from the classroom teacher and the findings of the speech improvement teacher are also filed. An anecdotal record is kept by the reading counselor, indicating the child's development in reading and his response to the total situation. This on-going narrative furnishes a basis for planning the individual program, observing the type and range of needs expressed over an extended period, and evaluating the program. These records are referred to constantly. Records of conferences with the school staff and the clinical team are also noted.

"Graduation" from the Special Reading Services

When, in the reading counselor's judgment, a child seems to be reading at his grade level, he is re-tested with an appropriate standardized reading test. If it is found that the

child has improved sufficiently, the reading counselor confers with the clinic team to determine whether the child can be considered for "tapering off." When the staff agrees, the classroom teacher is asked whether the child can maintain himself in the classroom without further help. Then the social worker consults with the child's parents. If all are agreed, the child's program is changed so that he comes to the reading room only once a week for approximately a month. During this time the child is prepared for the goal of "graduation" from the Special Reading Services.

In the past these closing exercises, at which the children receive diploma-like certificates, have been attended by the school principal and staff members. The most recent "graduation" was a most exciting and stirring event. Attractive invitations were sent to the parents of all the children in the reading program, principals of the cooperating schools, officials of the Board of Education, and others. Of special interest was the panel of six parents of children in the Special Reading Services who discussed their children's problems and expressed enthusiastic appreciation for the work of the Reading Clinic. One of the parents made the following statement: "When your child is sick with a fever you call the doctor and he prescribes medicine and the child generally recovers. When your child is sick in a different way, as our child was, and we did not know it, we did not know where to turn. We might never have known

how sick he was until disaster struck. For us there was the Special Reading Services. Our child is 'graduating' today. He is reading very well and is a well adjusted boy, thanks to the Special Reading Services."

A group of six "graduates" presented brief original statements about their changed attitudes towards reading since they were taken into the Special Reading Services. One of the children said, "I am not afraid of books any more. I know now that books can be friends."

The first group of children who "graduated" in February, 1957, formed an Alumni Association. This group meets twice a month. They elect officers and plan programs which include reporting on books borrowed from the Special Reading Services or the local library. Recently the children completed the writing of a script for a program which they plan to present at the next "graduation." The continuance of these groups helps the children to maintain the achieved goals and also assists in our follow-up. It is significant to note that all the "alumni" have continued to make excellent progress in reading since graduation.

Some Statistical Outcomes

When the children were admitted to Special Reading Services they were beginning readers, the majority scoring below third grade. For the 240 children the median reading retardation was 1.9 years below grade expectation. The length of time that the children were in the Special Reading Services varied from one

year and five months for some children to six weeks for the most recent group. In the new Brooklyn Center the length of stay was much shorter, ranging from six months to only two months.

It is recognized that because of the variations in length of stay and grade locations, generalization concerning reading gains is difficult. For this reason a method of showing changes in the rate of each child's reading growth had to be devised. Rates of reading growth were based on the assumption that reading achievement (in years and months) divided by time spent in school would give a percentage which would be roughly representative of reading growth. Thus the child in the third month of the fourth grade should theoretically have acquired 3.3 years of reading ability (a score of 4.3 — 1.0*) in the 3.3 years attended and have a "normal" rate of reading growth of 100 per cent. A child in the same school grade whose reading grade score was only 2.5 would have a rate of only 45 per cent (his score of 2.5 minus 1.0; divided by 3.3, the years and months of schooling).

The reading gain for each child, obtained by subtracting the original from the final reading score, was divided by the length of time the child was in Special Reading Services, and this provided the rate of growth in reading during the period in the Special Reading Services.

For 138 children in the Manhat-

tan Center and 80 in the Brooklyn Center, on whom data were complete, the rates of growth before and after admission to Special Reading Services were distributed according to the obtained percentages. Most children made marked gains in rate of growth. The median rate on admission was only 40 per cent in the Manhattan Center and 32 per cent in the Brooklyn Center, whereas, during the period in the Special Reading Services program, it was 153 per cent in the Manhattan Center and 162 per cent in the Brooklyn Center, using the formula developed by our staff. Comparing only the medians does not tell us enough, however, for another startling fact is that there is tremendous variability in the rate of response. Most children rather quickly begin to learn at average or better than average expectancy, and some make almost phenomenal strides. The rate of growth ranged from about 20 per cent (1 child) to over 300 per cent (17 children). Only 26 children out of 138 in Manhattan, and 17 out of 80 in Brooklyn, failed to attain at least a 100 per cent rate of growth.

The children's progress as shown by their improved adjustment has been noted not only by staff members but by parents and classroom teachers. The following brief report, based upon the opinions of the teachers of the children is considered significant.

The 68 classroom teachers of the children in the Special Reading Services program at the close of the school term answered the following questions about the children.

*This 1.0 represents the beginning of the first grade.

1. Has there been evidence of positive change in the child's attitude? Please indicate.

2. Has there been growth in the child's relationship with the group? Is he better integrated with the group? Is the group accepting him?

3. Is the child showing evidence of increased participation in classroom activities?

4. Additional comments by teacher.

Briefly summarized, their statements showed: (1) favorable changes in the child, according to answers to all three questions: Manhattan group—68 per cent; Brooklyn—66 per cent. (2) Favorable changes in the child, according to answers to two of the three questions: Manhattan group—22 per

cent; Brooklyn—22 per cent. (3) Evidence of improved personal-social adjustment: Manhattan group—90 per cent; Brooklyn—88 per cent.

These generally favorable outcomes, both in the children's reading growth and in their personal-social development, challenge the staff of Special Reading Services to continue with the hard work which the present program requires. These clinics represent tremendous opportunities for creative work. It is recognized that there is a great deal still to be learned regarding the children's individual differences in response to our program. For this reason we adopt a research point of view and continually evaluate the effectiveness of our procedures, making changes when there is need.

JOINT CONFERENCES

The International Reading Association will hold joint meetings with the American Association of School Administrators and the American Educational Research Association in Atlantic City in February, 1959. The meetings will be in the afternoon, and the dates are as follows:

IRA and AASA

Monday, February 16, and Wednesday, February 18

IRA and AERA

Tuesday, February 17

Hallmarks of Good Informational Books

by LELAND B. JACOBS
● TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

EVERY CHILD lives in a physical world—a world of earth, of plants and animals, of rocks, of rivers and streams, of energy, of lightning, thunder, wind, rain, sun, stars. Every child lives in a social world—a world of people, parents, neighbors, of races, religions, of transportation and communication, of occupations, of the great among men. And every child has inquisitiveness, and curiosities, questions, wonderings about the phenomena of the natural and social world in which he spends every minute of his time. He wants to be informed about many aspects of the busy, perplexing, impelling interrelationships that he continuously encounters in his life space.

Whereas previous to the 1920's there were relatively few good informational books for children—with many others pedantic and stuffy—today there are numerous fine informational books tempting the young to read them. They deal with facts and ideas in a great variety of fields of knowledge. And, what's more, they are written both with respect for the child's desire to know and with such skillful craftsmanship in composition that they are a truly pleasurable reading experience. Today's boy or girl need not be put upon by cold, drab, dreary accountings of factual information, which

is, indeed, a giant step forward in the field of children's books.

When one chooses informational books for children, he asks of every one of them that they be accurate and authentic, precise, clear, and free from over-simplification and over-generalization. But there are other considerations of equal importance that one should not fail to note.

Good informational books are functional and thus personal. The young reader is involved to some extent. The book is so written that the knowledge gained is, in some intimate way, related to the everyday living of the reader. Knowledge thus gained is not remote, static; it is forceful and integrative. It affects the reader's behavior. Good informational books imply, "You'll do differently now that you know more."

Good informational books open doors to further searching for knowledge. They lead the reader on to new questions and questings. Simultaneously they lay a solid, substantial groundwork of facts and ideas, and they make the reader realize that there is yet more for him to find out. A good informational book will leave a young reader feeling that, through his reading, he has gained a valuable degree of expertness, but it will not leave him with the belief that now he has all that he could know about

the subject. They seem to say, "What you know is fine. But there's more."

Good informational books give children big ideas to weigh and ponder. They are not "written down" to children. While the selection, organization, and presentation of the content is appropriate for the age of the reader, this is done in the spirit of respect for the child's ability to comprehend. And what facts and ideas are included are presented as dynamic, exciting, and important in being expert and discriminative in comprehending the knowledge now available to man. These books give children credit for being able to perceive something significant of the arts, religion, geology, anthropology, physiology, geography, sociology, history, mathematics, and the like. They say, in effect, "You can understand. Let me help you."

Good informational books are so developed that print and other forms of symbolization combine to communicate in complementary fashion. Diagrams, charts, photographs, illustrations are, of course, pleasing to the eye in their arrangements, but they are more. They are so designed that they too add significant dimensions to what the words are saying. The total effect, then, is larger than the sum of its parts. Words plus other forms of visual communication give children several vantage points for knowing and exploring the realms of information. Good informational books suggest, "Look at ideas this way . . . and this way . . . and this way."

Good informational books are

"ageless." They depend more upon what the reader wants to know than upon how old he is. If he is a rank amateur and wants to be introduced to a field of knowledge, no matter whether he is ten or three-times-ten, the book may appeal to him. In other words, good informational books carry no onus of being typed by an age bracket. Father and son can enjoy them together, with each coming away from the experience better informed than he previously was. Slow readers can openly say they are reading these books, and can share their learnings therefrom. These books say, "Since you don't know, and you want to know, here are some important ideas to get you going."

Good informational books can explore with the young reader his thoughts, ideas, concepts, prejudices, beliefs, superstitions, judgments, convictions about the world, natural and man-made, in which he grows, lives, and develops his very being. Good informational books extend his sympathies, deepen his insights, and develop sound scholarship. They apprise the child of where man is, at this moment in time, in his quest for comprehending natural phenomena, social relations, and the self.

Informational books deserve considerable attention today in the child's experiences with books. Their contributions differ distinctively from those of fiction and poetry, of course. But they too can have a beauty of their own—the beauty of truth well spoken, the beauty of "nature gat for men to see, and seeing wonder at."

A Study of the STEP Reading, SCAT and WISC Tests, and School Grades

by ROBERT W. MAYER

● NEWARK, DEL., SCHOOL DISTRICT

CORRELATION STUDIES of the relationship between reading achievement, intelligence, and school grades have yielded varying results, ranging from only moderate to markedly close statistical relationships. A review of the literature in this field seems to support the conclusion that the degree of relationship between these factors was strongly influenced by the specific group studied and the particular instruments used to measure reading, intelligence, and school achievement.

One of the newer test batteries being used in the public schools is the SCAT (School and College Ability Tests) and STEP (Sequential Tests of Educational Progress).^{*} SCAT is considered a measure of general scholastic ability, while STEP is a battery of achievement tests in areas such as reading, writing, and mathematics.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between SCAT, STEP Reading, and WISC (Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children) scores, and additionally, to study the correlation of these scores and school achievement as indicated by school grades.

Correlations between SCAT and STEP Reading, and between these

scores and school grades were made in a sample of 271 seventh grade students in the Newark, Delaware, Central Junior High school. Correlations between WISC results and SCAT, STEP Reading, and school grades were made on a random sample which included 100 of the above students.

The correlation coefficient between SCAT total scores and STEP Reading scores was found to be .806, which may be described as indicating a high and marked relationship. A coefficient of .624 was found between WISC full-scale scores and STEP Reading, suggesting a moderate, but substantial relationship. This difference in coefficients, which was found to be statistically significant, is attributed to the highly verbal nature of the SCAT. These findings further suggest that SCAT scores may be influenced by reading skills. A correlation coefficient of .773 was found between SCAT total and WISC full-scale scores, indicating a relationship between the two tests, and that the SCAT to some extent may be measuring general intelligence.

When scores for SCAT, STEP Reading, and WISC were correlated with average school grades, which included grades in English, science, social studies, and mathematics, marked relationships were found.

(Continued on Page 142)

^{*}Published by Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J.

What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

AGATHA TOWNSEND

*State Teachers College
Kutztown, Pennsylvania*

Research in the IRA

The materials presented in this issue consist of annotations of studies recently completed or still in progress by members of the IRA. The entries were submitted to the Committee on Studies and Research of this organization during the school year 1957-58. They were summarized under the direction of Dr. Arthur E. Traxler, committee chairman. It will be noted that this issue continues the series presented in October and December, 1957, when annotations were included for the previous academic year.

The studies represented are an impressive indication of activity on the part of Association members. Over ninety individual reports were received, dealing with studies in every area of reading methods and research. The following list is devoted entirely to studies which may be grouped under one general heading, as shown.

Reading Methods and Materials

AARON, I. E. College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia. Study of fourth and eighth graders to determine relationship between specific phonetic and struc-

tural analysis skills and ability in spelling and reading. Significance of differences between good and poor spellers on measures of intelligence, reading, syllabication and ability to spell nonsense syllables to be established.

BOTEL, MORTON. Public School Service Center, Doylestown, Penna. Compiling more data on the use of a method of spelling instruction for Grades 1-12 which provides for individual differences by placing each pupil at his instructional level and placing heavy emphasis on creative writing.

BROWN, JAMES. Rhetoric Department, University of Minnesota, St. Paul 1, Minn. To determine the value of various vocabulary aids. Students choose from among given aids the one they wish to use, and pre- and post-test vocabulary scores are recorded.

BUCKLIN, ERNEST L. 105-B Goodwin Court, Falls Church, Va. To determine relationship between ineffectual reading habits and educational retardation among junior high school pupils, and to discover best methods of applying corrective reading techniques in closing gap between pupil's functional reading level and potential.

BURDETTE, EUNICE E. Elementary Supervisor, Board of Education, Prince George County, Upper Marlboro, Md. To study the efficacy of an individualized reading program as compared with a three-group program in the elementary grades. Difference between experimental and control group not significant statistically, but several teachers enthusiastic about the individualized program.

CHESLEY, FLORENCE H. Supervisor Intermediate Grades, Jersey City Schools, 170 Jewett Ave., Jersey City, N. J. Results attributed to a six-year, system-wide experimental reading program show more narrow spread of reading levels per classroom. Program stresses slower, more thorough program in kindergarten through Grade 2.

CORTWRIGHT, RICHARD W. Baylor University, Waco, Texas. To determine the value of teaching reading to adults by television.

CREASMAN, JENNIE. Supervisor, Asheville City Schools, P.O. Box 7248, Asheville, N. C. Cooperation of four fourth-grade teachers in grouping within the grade, rather than within the single classrooms, for reading instruction only. Both teachers and children enthusiastic about results.

FERRELL, RACHEL B. Amandale, Minn. Plans to divide and combine fifth- and sixth-grade pupils by reading ability, for reading periods only, in order to provide classroom help with regular teachers. Project to begin Fall, 1958.

FLINTON, DORIS H. 23 Albin

Road, Delmar, N. Y. Study beginning Fall, 1958, to evaluate method of teaching beginning reading which uses materials prepared by Language Research, Inc., Harvard University.

GRUSZCZYNSKI, SISTER MARY LAURIANA, C.E.S.F. Madonna College, Livonia, Mich. To determine whether fourth graders who received direct instruction in reading skills for seven months differed in reading and social studies achievement from comparable groups taught these skills indirectly or concurrently with other reading activities. Results favored experimental groups.

HASKELL, CHARLOTTE L. 33 Crestmont Rd., Bangor, Me. Summarized individualized reading program instituted in a fifth-grade classroom. See: *Newsletter*, New England Reading Association.

HEBERLEIN, LEONA V. Liberty, Ill. To study the most profitable way to teach reading to pupils in Grade 2. Phonetic method with sight word and phrase now being used. Study will require several years.

HINDS, LILLIAN R. 4417 E. St. Joseph Way, Phoenix, Ariz. (With the cooperation of Lois Bing, Cleveland, O.) Will repeat experiment with kindergarten children to discover relationship between perceptual training and successful reading readiness work in kindergarten.

HUMPHREVILLE, FRANCES. 130 Ferndale Ave., Stratford, Conn. Study to determine value of systematic use of standardized tests in conjunction with teacher-pupil evaluation in stimulating junior high school pupils to greater improvement

in reading. Findings for able pupils indicate greater motivation, even when emotional disturbances are involved. Results for less able students are not so consistent.

LICHTENSTEIN, JACK. Boulevard School, 3235 Euclid Heights Blvd., Cleveland Heights 18, Ohio. To verify results obtained by Dr. Glenn McCracken in New Castle experiment in teaching beginning reading by filmstrips. In agreement with original study, found striking lack of low scores on standardized test after completion of one year's work.

LIEBLICH, SARAH R. Remedial Reading Teacher, P.S. 25, 787 Lafayette Ave., Brooklyn 21, N. Y. After testing all readers in Grades 4, 5, and 6 for mixed dominance, eight pupils selected to receive help in reading by use of mirror technique developed by Barger. Found retention to be far better for these pupils. The higher the IQ, the greater the progress made.

MARTIN, MRS. THEODORE T. 108 Tremont St., New Bedford, Mass. Classroom experiment using modification of method developed by Dr. Glenn McCracken including use of opaque projector, film-strips, dramatization of words and stories, writing original stories, and phono-visual method of phonics and spelling instruction.

MAYS, VIOLA. 3236 Graceland Ave., Indianapolis 8, Ind. To explore the effect of an individualized program on reading interest and achievement. Favorable results obtained with 31 seventh-grade pupils who did free reading individually and in small groups.

MCALLISTER, IONE. Carlsbad, N. M. Analysis of vocabulary in three basic reader series, in state-wide use in New Mexico, in terms of vocabulary list used in pre-reading work with non-English-speaking children.

MCCARTHY, MURIEL. 7 Cottage Street, Lewiston, Me. Better readers in Grades 4, 5, and 6 allowed to read library book several times a week for period of 40-60 minutes. Required written summaries and word lists but vocabulary study kept at a minimum. Interest in reading increased. Also noted wider use of public library, better verbalizing, and improvement in vocabulary.

MCCRACKEN, ROBERT A. Reading Laboratory, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind. Use of informal reading inventory techniques to examine children completing second grade as they read selections from first-, second-, and third-grade materials orally. Children classified as good, average, and poor readers on basis of errors, comprehension, and speed of reading. Results indicate wide range of difference within each classification and much overlapping in individual performances. Number of errors and speed of reading seemed to have good discriminative value while, at this level, comprehension seemed to have least discriminative value.

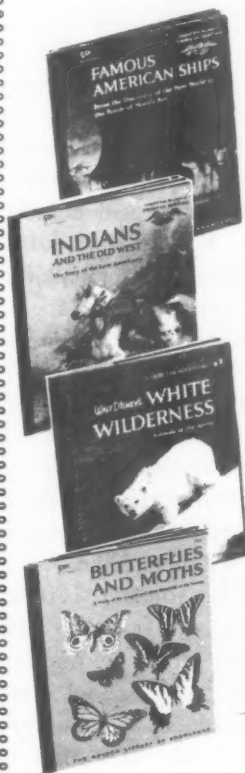
MCGINNIS, DOROTHY J. Psycho-Educational Clinic, Western Michigan Univ., Kalamazoo, Mich. Questionnaire survey to evaluate kind and degree of instruction for teaching reading was received in teacher training institutions by students preparing for secondary school teaching.

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Prehistoric Animals. How and why certain animals disappeared and how scientific detectives have traced their disappearance. With full-color illustrations, adapted from Life's "The World We Live In" series. Grades 4-up.

Walt Disney's Wildlife of the West. A pictorial history of the four-footed denizens of the American West — grizzly bears, mountain lions, buffalo, elk — in sweeping color, from Walt Disney's True Life Adventure films. Grades 7-up.

Indians and the Old West. All the excitement of the thrilling period when the Indians and the White Man were at war is in this volume — an adaptation from American Heritage. Grades 5-up.

Walt Disney's White Wilderness. A passport to the polar regions — home of polar bears, killer whales, seals and walruses. From a new Disney True Life Adventure film. Grades 4-up.

Birds of the World. A basic book for bird lovers — the most colorful birds in the world, in all their colorful majesty — penguins, swans, pheasants, eagles, hummingbirds, herons, ducks and songbirds. Grades 6-up.

Butterflies and Moths. Nature's most colorful insects, photographed or painted in their natural surroundings around the world. Tells of their life cycles, identifies common species. Grades 4-up.

SIMON AND SCHUSTER

Educational Division, 136 West 52nd Street, New York 19, N. Y.

Replies received from 570 teachers in Michigan show that 90 per cent did not receive any college instruction on how to teach reading to high school students. Although 75 per cent were taught to expect wide range of reading ability in their classes, only 20 per cent were given any aid in adjusting reading materials to reading levels of their students.

M McNABB, ISABEL. 1919 Narragansett Ave., Bronx 61, N. Y. To compare individualized reading and group reading as methods in first, second, fourth, and fifth grades. Average or bright children seem to profit greatly under the individual system, but only superior teachers can use this method without the constant aid of a manual. Study will continue for several years.

MOORE, VIRGINIA D. Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Anne Arundel County Board of Education, Annapolis, Md. Observation of the reactions of six- to eight-year-old children when independent reading material involves physical education. Game stories were found extremely successful in stimulating interest in reading and improving reading ability.

NORIEGA, SALVADOR. 1016 Roosevelt Ave., Richmond 5, Calif. Studied the reactions of twenty retarded Negro ten-year-olds to fourteen books, and discovered pupils very enthusiastic in their discussion of the books. Concludes that schools in "blighted" areas need to buy more books for these children and that authors should write for this kind of audience.

OAKES, FRANCES E. Kendall

College, Evanston, Ill. To determine whether speed, eye span, phrase reading and other mechanical skills which increased during a developmental reading course are retained after a lapse of one or two semesters of college work. No noticeable loss, some gain was found.

RACIDI, DOMENICAL. 26 Woodlawn Ave., Yonkers 4, N. Y. To study effects on elementary school pupils of homogeneous grouping based on reading achievement and intelligence. Study planned for 1958-59.

RIVKIND, HAROLD C. 6272 Fifth Ave. N., St. Petersburg, Fla. To measure the relative effectiveness with individual children of four methods of teaching word recognition in the primary grades—visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and combination of these. Found that for the average and lower segments of the classes the preferred method for particular children could be determined.

ROSTHAL, IRENE RUSSELL. P.O. Box 531, Key West, Fla. Good readers from the fifth and sixth grades read to first and second graders while teachers did their weekly bookkeeping. Proved very valuable to readers, listeners, and teachers alike.

RUSSELL, MARJORIE A. 170 State St., Newburyport, Mass. To determine what per cent of pupils in Grades 1-8 in local school system were below grade in vocabulary or comprehension as measured by standardized tests. Those below grade were studied to determine whether they were working up to capacity or are of normal or high intelligence. Experimental program

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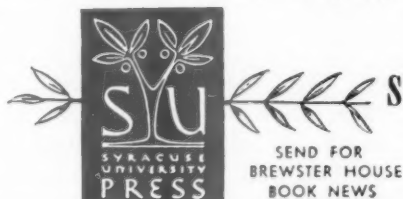
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(FIRST READER LEVEL)

M. REY: Curious George Flies a
Kite
(FIRST GRADE LEVEL)

"DR. SEUSS": Yertle the Turtle
(THIRD GRADE LEVEL)

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similar to Joplin plan to be instituted in Grades 4 to 6 in 1958-59.

STONBERG, SELMA F. Newton Junior College, Newtonville, Mass. To determine best non-mechanical method of increasing reading comprehension and speed skills at the Junior College level. Relating reading, writing, and study skills produced best results. Informal tests, grades in other subjects, student self-evaluation, and psychological approach to reading were also studied.

STUBBINS, MAUD C. 819 University Place, Wheaton, Ill. To determine value of intensive phonetics, incidental phonetics, interest level method, and unit method in teaching EMH children. Study will probably take about three years for completion.

UNDERWOOD, WILLIAM J. Asst. Supt. of Schools, 108 E. 2nd St., Lee's Summit, Mo. To determine if the use of attractively printed forms for listing books read (*On My Bookshelf*, Grades 1-6, and *High School Reading Record*, Grades 7-12) increases number of books read. A significant increase was found. Further information available at end of school year 1958-59.

WOLF, MILDRED. R.R. 3, Union City, Ind. Reading taught through use of games. Those who have trouble with reading tend to forget they are reading and enjoy the work. Copy of games and study in Reading Laboratory, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind. Thesis.

(Continued on Page 142)

What Other Magazines Say About READING

BY

MURIEL POTTER LANGMAN

Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

KAWI, ALI A., M.D., and PASAMANICK, BENJAMIN, M.D. "Association of Factors of Pregnancy with Reading Disorders in Childhood." *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 22, 1958.

For almost as long as reading clinics have existed, studies have revealed more physical handicaps among their clients than in the general population of children who have learned to read without difficulty. This observation has resulted in many studies.* In this recent one the two investigators examined the hospital records of mother's pregnancy and infant's delivery for 205 boys with reading disorders and compared these with the records of the same number of boys without reading disorders. Of the first group, 16.6 per cent had been exposed to two or more maternal complications, as compared with 1.5 per cent of the second group. The maternal complications most often reported were preeclampsia, hypertensive disease, and bleeding during pregnancy. The investigators point out that these complications are apt to lead to fetal anoxia.

Gesell formulated the hypothesis of

the relation of benign minimal birth injury to subsequent development of reading disability in the '30's, and the study described above is among those that support it. Gesell pointed out the incidence of poor motor coordination, speech defects, and oculomotor weakness among those children he suspected of being minimally birth injured. These handicaps are very frequently found among the population of reading clinics. Kawi and Pasamanick point out the lack of evidence for a causal relationship between the findings and the existence of reading disability, but also the implications for the importance of continuing to eradicate maternal and fetal abnormalities.

HOLMES, JACK A., and HYMAN, WILLIAM. "Spelling Disability and Asyntaxia in a Case Involving Injury to the Language Formulation Area of the Brain." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December, 1957.

This article describes the results of a head injury to an adult male. The right-handed patient had been hit on the left side of his head with a bottle. Five months later, he was readmitted to the VA hospital where he had originally been seen, presenting symptoms among which was difficulty in language formulation, particularly with syntax. He was able to write numbers

*For example, EAMES, T. G. "A comparison of Children of Premature and Full Term Birth Who Fail in Reading." *Journal of Educational Research*, 38 (1945), 506-508.

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and do simple mental arithmetic, but found it difficult to write the alphabet, and was unable to write words singly or in sentences.

Exhaustive psychoeducational testing of this patient led the investigators to the conclusion that the *writing from dictation type* of spelling ability and the *proofreader's type* of spelling ability are not the same ability, a conclusion already drawn by Holmes from research with normals in 1954. The suggestion is made that spelling ability as revealed by the ability to spell orally or to write words from dictation calls upon a language formulation area, while the proofreader's type of ability to recognize correct spelling by visual inspection does not require the use of this area. Many educators have assumed that these two abilities were one and the same, viz., such spelling tests as the one in the Iowa Every Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, but on the other hand, every first grade teacher has met non-readers some of whom could match words quite effectively in work books although quite unable to read or write them under any circumstances. Such studies as the one described above make important contributions to our understanding of processes, and so eventually to our improvement of teaching method.

BLOMMERS, PAUL, and STROUD, J. B. "Note on the Organismic Age Concept." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, April, 1958.

These two investigators report their continuing statistical evaluation of the now widely accepted concept of organismic age, which has been used for the prediction of reading success or failure,

or rather as an explanation of many reading failures as due to "immaturity." This article reports the complex procedures as a result of which they state "there are neither theoretical nor empirical bases for believing that organismic age predicts school achievement."

ROBERTS, RICHARD W., and COLEMAN, JAMES C. "An Investigation of the Role of Visual and Kinesthetic Factors in Reading Failure." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 51, No. 6, February, 1958.

The experimenters used two equated groups which differed only in reading achievement and in the spread of chronological age. The control group had no reading failures, while the experimental group was retarded 2.9 reading grades. Nonsense syllables were presented to both groups by being written large with black crayon on cards in script and exposed for ten seconds. Each of the fifty-six subjects was required to learn under two separate conditions, by visual presentation alone, and by a combined visual and kinesthetic presentation. No auditory cues were used. Findings were: (1) The group performance of the reading cases was significantly inferior to that of the normal readers in visual perception. (2) The reading failures were less efficient than the normals in learning new material presented by visual cues only. (3) The reading failure group learned material more easily when methods comprised both visual and kinesthetic cues. (4) The normal readers did not profit more from using kinesthetic cues and visual cues than from using only visual ones. (5) Read-

ing failures who obtained "normal" scores on the visual perception test did not profit from addition of kinesthetic cues. (6) Normal readers whose scores in the test of visual perception were lower than average profited by the addition of kinesthetic cues.

The experimenters believe these findings justify the use of the kinesthetic method in remedial reading programs.

DURRELL, DONALD; NICHOLSON, ALICE; OLSON, ARTHUR V.; GAVEL, SYLVIA R., and LINEHAN, ELEANOR B. "Success in First Grade Reading." *Journal of Education*, Boston University School of Education, Vol. 140, No. 3, February, 1958.

In this study four Greater Boston communities participated, comprising 2,188 first-grade children in 91 classes. The testing program began the second week of the school year and included an informal test of letter knowledge, the Murphy-Durrell Diagnostic Reading Readiness Test, and one of several group mental maturity tests. In the following February an oral reading test was used; the letter knowledge test was repeated in November and in February to observe growth; and the Boston University Test of Hearing Sounds was also given at these times. Reading achievement tests, including one of oral reading and the Detroit Word Recognition Test, were given in June, along with a test of applied phonics. The authors offer these comments:

Many children are ready to read on the first day of school and need no reading readiness instruction. There are marked differences among the children who require reading readiness instruc-

tion, so that different levels and content should be provided in the reading readiness program to take care of differences in learning rate, letter knowledge, and ability to perceive sounds in words. Oral reading on a composite test showed a wide distribution of scores in February. The Detroit Word Recognition Test was not so effective in discriminating levels of achievement. In a test of hearing sounds in words, there was marked growth from November to February. There was a high positive relationship between word recognition scores and ability to name lower case letters. "While a knowledge of letter names does not insure high reading achievement, the lack of this knowledge assures low reading achievement."

The most striking conclusion of the study is that most reading difficulties can be prevented by an instruction program which provides early instruction in letters and sounds and applied phonics as well as training in sight vocabulary and silent reading. The children in this study ranged in age from 63 to 99 months, in mental age from 49 to more than 120 months, and in IQ from below 70 to over 150 as measured on group intelligence tests. No information is given about the socio-economic status of the group.

GRAY, WILLIAM S. "Summary of Reading Investigations, July 1, 1956, to June 30, 1957." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 51, No. 6, February, 1958.

This is a valuable and helpful overview of what is going on in reading research. The summary is followed by a bibliography of ninety-six items.

Interesting BOOKS for the Reading Teacher

BY

HARRY T. HAHN

Oakland County Schools, Michigan

Personal Reading Instructor for Every Child

MIEL, ALICE, Editor. *Individualizing Reading Practices, Number 14, Practical Suggestions for Teaching*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1958. Pp. 91. \$1.00.

In the opening article, "Individualized Reading Is Not a Thing," Dr. Leland Jacobs raises two questions which have been discussed and debated in current periodicals and at many local, state, and national conferences. "If learning to read is an individual accomplishment; if schools will succeed in teaching a child to read; if there is no one method to guarantee one hundred per cent results in children's reading effectually, then why not break the lock step in methods and materials for group teaching of skills? Why not truly individualize reading?" He then proceeds to provide a much needed explanation of what individualized reading does and does not mean. His strong and clear statements should provide the basis for careful study and result in much understanding on the part of those who are considering adopting this teaching method.

It is evident that individualized reading instruction is something more effective than having individual chil-

dren take turns reading orally at sight to the teacher while the rest of the pupils page aimlessly through books or work tediously on hastily prepared duplicated materials.

After Dr. Jacobs, five enthusiastic teachers present articles on how the individualized reading program has worked in their classrooms.

This pamphlet certainly does not present a new idea. One cannot deny, however, that proponents of this plan are heralding it with considerably more vigor than they have in the past. The booklet should provide a valuable resource for interested teachers until a more elaborate and much needed treatment of the subject is published.

Meeting Individual Needs Through Reading. Sacramento: Sacramento State College Council International Reading Association, 1958. Pp. 49.

Effective methods of grouping and instruction to meet individual needs are discussed in an informative and practical style in this series of reports. Instructors—primary through college—discussed the philosophy of Dr. William S. Gray as expressed in his key speech for the conference, "Meeting Individual Needs Through Reading." These reports should be meaningful to every classroom teacher.

Reading Disabilities in Sweden

MALMQUIST, EVE. *Factors Related to Reading Disabilities in the First Grade of the Elementary School*. Stockholm: Almqvist and Wiksell, 1958. Pp. 428.

In Sweden as in America Jon can't read. From Eve Malmquist has come the description of a thorough study of the reading disabilities of a group of first graders in two elementary schools of Sweden. Dr. Malmquist has worked with professors at the University of Stockholm in evaluating and reporting the research. Study in America at colleges and universities with reading clinics has given an international understanding of the factors contributing to reading disabilities.

The first part of this book is devoted to a survey of the medical and psychological research that has contributed to the basic concepts of reading disabilities as they are understood today. This survey reviews the research on reading disabilities in both Europe and America from 1877 to the present time. It is comprehensive and of value to all individuals interested in the factors contributing to the reading problems so many children experience.

The experimental study was carefully and skillfully planned, and was systematically administered. Measuring devices for the factors contributing to reading skills are described. The relationships among the factors are interpreted with meaning for function.

The findings of each test are discussed, along with the factors contributing to the disability of the children that Dr. Malmquist typed as "good,

medium and poor readers." Studies were made to show the combinations of causal factors and the degree to which each is a part of the reading problem of individuals in each classification. There is similarity between the procedure of reading analysis in the Swedish public schools and the analysis used in clinics in the United States.

Any person interested in testing procedures and analysis of the factors contributing to an individual's reading problem will find this book worthy of a place on his reading list.

Gladys Lupton

Books for the Beginning Reader

Primary-grade teachers are certain to be pleased with the unusual interest publishers have taken in books particularly designed for young people who are just learning to read. It is a rewarding experience to have children exclaim, "I can read it all by myself!" Evidently this is the purpose of these new trade books which feature a controlled vocabulary, large print, colorful pictures, and amusing situations.

Random House, Inc., New York, had reason to be enthusiastic with the way its 1957 edition of Dr. Seuss' *The Cat in the Hat* was received. For in 1958 they are continuing with this type of controlled vocabulary books in a new series entitled "Beginner Books." Each one of these books is approximately 64 pages in length and retails for \$1.95. The titles include *The Cat in the Hat Comes Back*, by Dr. Seuss; *The Big Jump and Other Stories*, by Benjamin Elkin; *Sam and the Firefly*, by Philip Eastman; *A Fly Went By*, by Mike McClintock; and *A Big Ball*



sup·ple·ment (n. sup'plə-mənt)

n. 1. something added to complete a thing.
-v. supply what is lacking in; add to; complete. [*< L supplem-*
sub- up +-plere fill]

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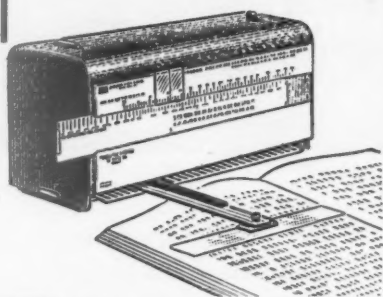
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of *String*, by Marion Holland.

Garrard Press is also introducing a new Dolch series under the title "The First Reading Books." Using the easier half of the well-known 220 basic sight words and the 95 commonest nouns, Dr. Dolch has written real-life stories to provide independent reading for first graders. The titles include *In the Woods*, *Monkey Friends*, *On the Farm*, *Tommy's Pets*, and *Zoo Is Home*. The list price of each is \$2.00.

Last year Follett Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, introduced their "Beginning-to-Read" Books on three reading levels. This series was highlighted by the wonderful, first-prize-winning Follett Award Book, *Nobody Listens to Andrew*, by Elizabeth Guilfoile (list price, \$.96). For the 1958 season Follett has expanded this series to include animal stories and stories about real-life experiences of considerable interest to children. Some of the titles are: Level One, *In John's Back Yard*, *My Own Little House*, *Nobody Listens to Andrew*, and *Something New at the Zoo*; Level Two, *The Four Friends*, *Mabel the Whale*, and *Miss Hattie and the Monkey*; Level Three, *Peter's Policeman* and *This Is a Town*.

Readability

CHALL, JEANNE S. *Readability: An Appraisal of Research and Application*. Bureau of Educational Research Monographs No. 34. The Ohio State University, 1957. Pp. xiv+202. \$4.00, cloth; \$3.00, paper.

This monograph with its comprehen-

sive and critical appraisal of research makes a valuable contribution to readability measurement. Well organized and fully documented, the publication is indispensable to anyone who wishes to become familiar with the various aspects of the development and status of readability up to 1953.

The author points out that she limits her treatment to the following concept of readability: the ease or difficulty of understanding printed text. Working within this conceptual framework, she presents, compares, analyzes critically, and summarizes the data from the research. After drawing major generalizations she structures the research needed, stressing the need for work on the qualitative aspects of readability, such as idea abstractness and author organization.

In the discussion of the application of readability measurement, chief emphasis is placed on the field of education. Journalism, industry, government, social agencies, and test and questionnaire construction are also included only "in broad terms."

Those interested in using readability formulas will find helpful the discussions of what factors are incorporated into each formula, what factors are not included, and how the formulas differ. The comparative, summary tables including all the formulas can aid in selecting the appropriate formula to estimate the relative difficulty of materials already printed or being written. Cautions in using any formula are pointed out and substantiated.

E. Socher

THE CLIP SHEET

Mary Elisabeth Coleman
University of Pennsylvania

Old Favorites

Junior Reviewers reports: "Over twenty million 'Hardy Boys' have been sold which, if stacked up, would stand 237 miles high, or, if laid end to end, would cover 2400 miles, or almost the width of America. The publishers estimate that three youngsters read each book and, thus, they say that sixty million children have read about the famous brothers." *Junior Reviewers*, XVI (March-April, 1958), 3. Box 36, Aspen, Colorado.

Parents and Reading

To prepare to meet parents' questions, we should know what the questions are. In "For Parents—On Reading," Henry R. Fea discusses recent articles under these classifications: material criticizing the reading program; material suggesting how parents can assist in the school reading program; and material designed to enable parents to teach their children. The bibliography lists forty-nine articles and books. One would like to see a greater representation from the lay magazines. Nevertheless, this is a worthwhile analysis for the reading teacher. *The University of Washington College of Education Record*, XXIV (March, 1958), 40-47.

Reading Conference Proceedings

The proceedings of the third annual conference of the Sacramento State College Council of the International Reading Association are available as long as they last. Dr. William S. Gray's address, "Meeting Individual Needs Through Reading," set the theme of the conference. Other speakers discussed the meeting of needs at successive levels, from the primary classes through college. *Meeting Individual Needs Through Reading*. Sacramento State College Council International Reading Association, 6,000 J Street, Sacramento 19, California. \$1.00 per copy. The Council will exchange proceedings with conferences which publish similar materials.

Bibliographies

"Growing Up with Books" will be useful for book gifts. It lists 250 titles, old favorites and modern titles. The titles are annotated and classified by age and interests. Pp. 36. 100 for \$3.35. Julius Schwartz, Consultant in Science, Bureau of Curriculum Research, Board of Education, New York City, and Herman Schneider, author and lecturer at City College of New York, assisted in compiling a list of 250 science books for children of all age groups.



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"The Family Read Together" is an annotated reading list for parents and children. Los Angeles County Public Library, 322 South Broadway, Los Angeles 13, Calif.

The School Library Department of the Baltimore Public Schools and the Enoch Pratt Free Library cooperate in an annual publication of selected titles for high school readers. "The High School Librarians Choose the Best Books of '57 for Their Readers," is now available in small quantities. School Library Department, Baltimore Public Schools, 3 East 25th Street, Baltimore 18, Maryland.

Children's Encyclopedias

An excellent evaluation of encyclopedias for children and young people is given in "Recommended Sets for Home Libraries: A consensus of library opinion compiled by *Library Journal*." The practical comments of librarians who have helped children use the various sets discussed are invaluable to one who is contemplating a sizable expenditure for an encyclopedia. The article concludes with a listing of "statistics and prices on fourteen reference sets that are generally well regarded by librarians." *Junior Libraries* 4 (April, 1958), 9-12.

Book Awards of the Year

At the close of the year it seems appropriate to list some of the 1958 book awards of greatest interest to reading teachers.

Newberry Award: to Harold Keith for *Rifles for Watie*.

Caldecott Medal: to Robert McCloskey for *Time of Wonder*.

New York Herald Tribune Spring Children's Book Awards: to *Cric-tor* by Tomi Ungerer for picture books; to *Chucaro* by Francis Kalnay for eight- to twelve-year-olds; to *Sons of the Steppe* by Hans Baumann, translated by Isabel and Florence McHugh, for older boys and girls.

The Canadian Children's Book Award: to Edith Lambert Sharp for *Nkwala*.

The Boys Club of America Junior Book Awards: to *The Earth Satellite*, by John Lewellen; *Pre-historic Man and Primates*, by William E. Scheele; *Hokahey!*, by Edith Dorian and W. N. Wilson; *The Wonderful World of the Sea*, by James Fisher; *Faint George*, by Robert E. Barry; *The Valiant Sailor*, by C. Fox Smith.

The Jane Addams Children's Book Award: to Margot Benary-Isbert for *Blue Mystery*, translated by Richard and Clara Winston.

The William Allen White Children's Book Award: to *White Falcon*, by Elliott Arnold.

The Aurianne Award: to *Dipper of Copper Creek*, by Jean and John George.

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COUNCIL NEWS

LaVERNE STRONG

Connecticut State
Department of Education

Greetings! Merry Christmas!

Please? Let's make it a Happier New Year for all IRA Councils by sharing through this column news of meetings, conferences, and activities. How about appointing one person to report to Council News? *February 5, 1959*, is the deadline for the April issue. Your news should be sent to the Organization Chairman, Dr. LaVerne Strong, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 2219, Hartford, Connecticut.

To Form a New Council

Please write to the Organization Chairman and helpful material will be sent you. All Canadian inquiries should be addressed to the Associate Organization Chairman, Mr. Clare B. Routley, Department of Education, Parliament Building, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Recent inquiries for help in forming local councils have come from Australia, California (2), Georgia (2), Minnesota, Missouri, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia (3).

Salute to New Councils

Charters have been granted to: *Brant County Council of IRA*, President, Mrs. A. Kemp, Box 155, Brant, Ontario, Canada; *Kitchener and District Council*, President, Mrs.

M. Kingsley, 18 Van Camp St., Kitchener, Ontario, Canada; *Rochester Area Council*, President, Mr. Robert G. Koch, 24 May St., Rochester 20, New York; *South Euclid-Lyndhurst Council*, President, Miss Shirley S. Vitek, 6439 Wilson Mills Road, Cleveland 24, Ohio; *North Country Council*, President, Miss Helen L. Stiles, Gouverneur, New York.

Australia

Miss May F. Marshall, Teachers' College, Claremont, Western Australia, has been appointed Australian Organization Chairman by Dr. George Spache, our IRA President.

The first council is now in process of being formed. It will be known as *Western Australia Council of IRA*. Under consideration is the possibility of holding an IRA conference at one of the meetings of the Australian and New Zealand Association for the Advancement of Science.

Germany

The *Werler Arbeitskreis Council* 1958-1959 officers are: President, Mr. John Owen Regan (D.N.D. School, C.A.P.O., Werl, Germany); Vice-President, Miss Christine Swanson; and Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Helen Morril.

Hawaii

Miss Jean Schellinger, President of the *Ka Hui Heluhelu Council* (Honolulu), attended the University of Chicago Reading Conference this past summer. During her stay she visited IRA executive headquarters and talked with Dr. James M. McCallister, IRA Executive Secretary-Treasurer. Miss Schellinger ordered for Council use in their 1958-1959 program the tape recordings of Dr. Gray's and Dr. Austin's presentations at the Third Annual Meeting of IRA in Milwaukee.

Arizona

The *Arizona Intermediate Council* was organized on a state-wide basis in the spring of 1958 in Phoenix. Elected officers were: Mrs. Lillian R. Hinds, President, and Dr. Ray Rucker, Secretary-Treasurer. Upon Dr. Rucker's acceptance of the position of Dean of Men at National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, Dr. J. T. Hunt was appointed Acting Secretary-Treasurer.

The Council scheduled a luncheon-workshop meeting during the Arizona Education Association Meeting at Arizona State College, Tempe, on October 31-November 1.

Kansas

The *Northeast Kansas Council* is in the process of being organized. It will draw its membership from fifteen counties in that area. Assisting the Council is Dr. Robert W. Ridgway, Director of Elementary Education, of the University of

Kansas, and IRA Organization Committee Member for Kansas.

The date for the Second Kansas Statewide Reading Conference was October 4. The program plans included descriptions and discussions of successful reading programs in the state — individualized reading instruction, the Joplin Plan, remedial programs, and developmental programs at the secondary level.

Louisiana

The *North Louisiana Reading Association* is planning a meeting for four to five hundred people to be held in February or March, 1959. The Board of Directors would like to obtain as a keynote speaker a reading consultant or specialist from another country. If anyone knows of such a person here on an exchange basis or for study, will you please write Mrs. June I. Bayless, Secretary, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, School of Education, Special Education Center, Ruston, Louisiana.

New York

The *North Country Council* held its first reading conference on Saturday, September 20, 1958, at the State University Teachers College at Potsdam. Seventy-five people served on the Planning, Publicity, and Registration Committees. Sixteen workshop - discussion groups were planned for all levels from the primary through high school. The administrators and the boards of education expressed their interest and support by subsidizing the conference to the extent of five cents per

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pupil within each school district in the area. Serving on the workshop staff were reading specialists from: Farmingdale, Gouverneur, Corning, Newark, and Utica; Albany Teachers College, Plattsburg Teachers College, Potsdam Teachers College; New York State Department of Education; Cornell University; University of Rochester; Syracuse University. Dr. William Sheldon, IRA Executive Board Member, addressed a junior high school group.

Northern New England Council

"Reading Research in Selected Public Schools" provided the theme of the March meeting held at Northeastern University, Boston. A question and discussion period followed the presentation of the studies. Mrs. Marjorie Follensbee and Mrs. Lorraine Fava, Reading Consultants for the Natick Schools, presented a first-grade study which stressed systematic instruction in letter names and sounds, one part of a larger study carried on in several communities under the direction of Dr. Donald D. Durrell. Dr. Olive Eldridge, Newton Principal, told of her findings in developing a classroom adjustment scale suitable for use with first-grade children. Mrs. Katherine Hall, Director of Reading at Wellesley High School, spoke on "A Study of Reading Improvement and School Grades." Cases illustrated how improvement in reading was reflected in subject matter grades. Miss Nancy Stover, social worker at the Judge Baker Foundation, reported that learning difficulties complicate the

lives of children in "Clinical Study of Certain Learning Difficulties." The high interest of the council members resulted in plans for an annual research meeting.

Ohio

The *Dayton Area Reading Council* set November 22 for the second meeting of the year, in Fairborn, Ohio. This year's theme is "The Function of Reading in the Life of the Child"; the aspect to be explored at this meeting was "What Are the Modern Child's Interests?" Centers of interest were psychology, science, current events, mass media, the library, and recreation.

Southern New England Council

The Annual Summer Dinner Meeting was held in conjunction with the Annual Conference on Reading and the Language Arts sponsored by the University of Rhode Island. Dr. Robert C. Aukerman, Director of the Reading Conference and Council Program Chairman, introduced the keynote speaker, Dr. Bill Martin, noted author and story-teller. Distinguished guests were Dr. H. Alan Robinson, Hofstra College, Long Island (former IRA Advertising Manager for *THE READING TEACHER*); Dr. Helen Scott, Rhode Island College of Education; Dr. Tom Nally, University of Rhode Island; and Dr. Charles Letson, Montclair, New Jersey.

During the business meeting the officers for 1958-1959 were elected: President, Mr. Irving Baker, Springfield, Mass.; First Vice-President,

Dr. Robert Aukerman; Second Vice-President, Miss Letitia Burnley, Pascoag, R. I.; Corresponding Secretary, Miss Esther Grove, Kingstown, R. I.; Recording Secretary, Miss Hope Arnold, Allentown, R. I.; Treasurer,

Miss K. Claire Kind, North Providence, R. I. Directors of the Executive Board for a three-year term are Miss Elizabeth Fisler, North Attleboro, Mass., and Mr. Martin Salz, Storrs, Conn.

(Continued from Page 117)

The coefficient between SCAT and average grades was .703; the coefficient between STEP Reading and average grades was .713; and a coefficient of .727 was found between

WISC and average grades. No statistical differences were found among these coefficients, suggesting all three tests predicted average school grades with equal effectiveness.

(Continued from Page 124)

ZWEIG, RICHARD L. The Reading Guidance Center, Inc., 5845 Atlantic Ave., Long Beach 5, Calif. Results of study of junior high school pupils

yielded no statistically significant differences in reading achievement of groups taught by visual, auditory, or kinesthetic techniques.



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Message from the President

Dear Friends,

I have corresponded with so many of you this fall that I feel as if this were just another personal letter to an IRA member.

May I first offer my greetings to the dozen or more new councils that have joined us thus far this year. I know you have been ably assisted by Dr. LaVerne Strong in planning your constitution and organization. If you need assistance in planning programs or membership drives, Dr. Strong and Dr. H. Alan Robinson, Chairman of the Membership Committee, will be glad to advise you. I welcome you to membership in the international organization and am certain you will enjoy its contributions to your professional growth.

Speaking of the international nature of our organization, I know you will be happy to learn that efforts are being made to form councils in Australia, England, Germany, and other countries. Meanwhile our Canadian membership continues to grow both in councils and individual members, thanks to the efforts of Clare Routley in Toronto and Dorothy Lampard in Alberta.

Our first Board of Directors meeting is scheduled in New York on November 1. Since I am writing this note in late September, I cannot tell you of the Board's actions at this

time. But I have no doubt that by the time this is in print, you will have seen the results of some of the Board's decisions in the form of a council newsletter, possible increase in the size of *THE READING TEACHER*, announcement of the theme of the Annual Conference, etc.

I know that at the moment you are looking forward to the Christmas recess. May I offer you my personal best wishes and those of the Board of Directors for a very restful and happy Christmastime.

—GEORGE D. SPACHE

Nominations for President-elect and the Board of Directors will be made by the Elections Committee from suggestions submitted by individual members. Candidates should be thoroughly familiar with the organization and should have had experience with a local or regional council, an IRA Committee, or some segment of the organization's work. Please send your suggestions to the Chairman of the Elections Committee, Nancy Larrick, Random House, 457 Madison Ave., New York 22. Each name should be accompanied by a 50-word statement of the qualifications which that person has for office.

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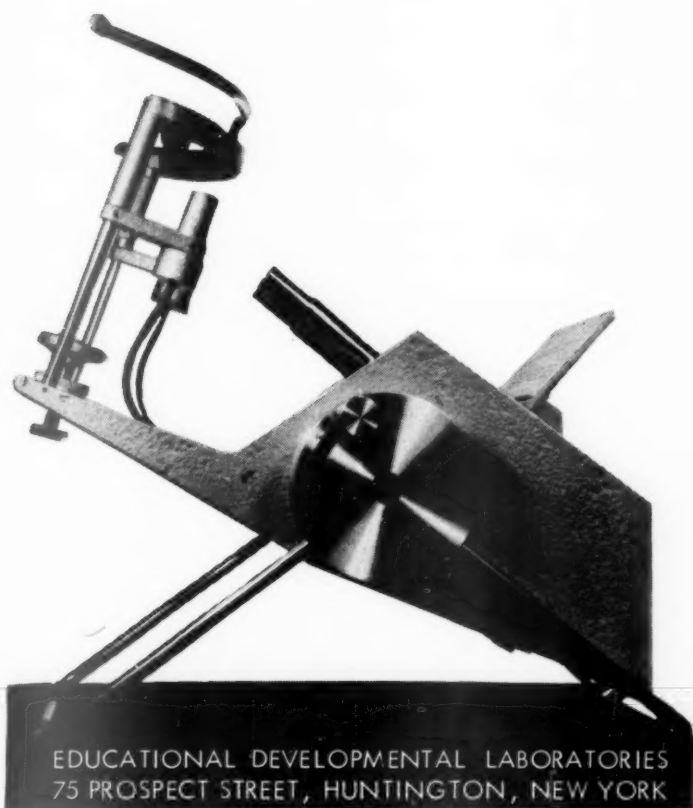
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